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School Life

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School Life

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Purpose

The Congress of the United States established the United States Office of Education in 1867 to "collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories;" to "diffuse such information as shall aid in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems;" and to "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." SCHOOL LIFE serves toward carrying out these purposes. Its printing is approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget.

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Courtesy Sewanhaka High School, Floral Park, N. Y.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR EDUCATIONAL RADIO

by Franklin Dunham, Chief, Educational Uses of Radio

REMARKABLE increase in FM frequencies in the 88-92 megacycle band set aside exclusively for educational radio recently has been shown. State-wide networks are being planned in Alabama, California, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia. These stations operated by the school systems or the universities, as the case may be, will supply programs for the schools and colleges, and for listening at home as well.

Wisconsin is already in the building stage with two frequencies—one at

Madison and one at Delafield—assigned for transmission to the greater population areas of the State. Louisiana is also in the building stage with the frequency of 91.7 megacycles assigned to the University, at Baton Rouge. Michigan, with a 50,000-watt station at Ann Arbor, represents to date the most powerful transmitter equipment planned for reception over a large area of the State. Maryland, on the other hand, is planning 5 stations, strategically located over the State. Coordinated direction of these is administered by a State Educational FM Planning Committee with headquarters at the State Education Department in Baltimore. A summary of the present plans shows

that 23 of 40 actively interested States will have sufficiently powerful and well-planned transmission to cover the entire area of their respective territories.

Commissioner Comments

In a statement made at the close of the school year, Commissioner Studebaker said: "FM has come. The 20 cleared channels provided by the Federal Communications Commission are fast being taken up. It began with great city systems like Cleveland, New York, Chicago, and San Francisco, and universities like the University of Illinois and the University of Kentucky. Last spring licenses were also granted to individual school systems, universities,

and colleges that were ready to get into operation. Joining the vanguard are city systems like Kansas City, Buffalo, Newark, Detroit, Sacramento, El Paso; and universities like Columbia, University of Iowa, University of Southern California, Michigan State, Louisiana State, University of Oklahoma, The Oklahoma Agricultural College at Stillwater and many others. For years radio was brought to the schools. Turn about is fair play. Now we are bringing the schools to radio and the record to date is a good one."

Since the report of the Commissioner, the record has been considerably enlarged. There are now, according to the Federal Communications Commission's official report, 21 stations under construction, besides the original 6 which have been operating on the old 42 megacycle band. These 21 stations are: KSUI, State University of Iowa; KUSC, University of Southern California; WCAH, Board of Education, Buffalo, N. Y.; KIER, School District of Kansas City, Mo.; WATX, Regents of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.; WBCO, Board of Education, Newark, N. J.; WPIL, Providence Bible Institute, Providence, R. I.; WCUV, Columbia University, New York City; KOKU, Oklahoma State University, Norman; WLSU, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, La.; KOAG, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater; WDTR, Board of Education, City of Detroit, Mich.; WIUN, State Radio Council at Madison, Wis.; and WIUV, granted to the same applicant at Delafield, Wis.; KSCU, Sacramento School District, Sacramento, Calif.; WDWD, School District No. 4, Lane County, at Eugene, Oreg.; KIDE, The Independent School District of the City of El Paso, Tex.; WDWL, Grant Union High School, North Sacramento, Calif.; WSHS, Sewanaka High School, Floral Park, N. Y.; KCRW, Santa Monica School Board, Santa Monica, Calif.; and KCVN, College of the Pacific, Stockton, Calif.

Widespread Applications

Applications to the FCC on hand include Fordham University, New York City; the City of San Bernardino High

School District, San Bernardino, Calif.; Indiana University, Bloomington; Michigan State College, Lansing; Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; Iowa State College, Ames; Board of Education, Atlanta, Ga.; Pennsylvania State College, State College; Junto, Inc., an old literary society at Philadelphia, Pa.; Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station; Board of Education, St. Louis, Mo.; University of New Mexico, Albuquerque; Board of Education, Toledo, Ohio; State Teachers College, West Chester, Pa.; University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; University of Houston, Houston, Tex.; City of Jackson Schools, Jackson, Ohio; and the Oklahoma City Board of Education, Oklahoma City, Okla.

There are also 20 additional applications in which full requirements for acceptance have not yet been met. They are: Menlo School and Junior College, Atherton, Calif.; San Diego School District, San Diego, Calif.; San Mateo Junior College, San Mateo, Calif.; Ventura County Schools, Ventura, Calif.; University of Tampa, Tampa, Fla.; Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Ill.; Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Indianapolis; University of Kansas, Lawrence; Bay City Schools, Bay City, Mich.; Michigan College of Mines, Houghton; Northern Michigan College of Education, Marquette; Central Michigan College of Education, Mount Pleasant; Mount Pleasant Schools, Mount Pleasant, Mich.; Minnesota Economic Foundation, Minneapolis, Minn.; School District of Clayton, Clayton, Mo.; William Woods College, Fulton, Mo.; University of Nevada, Reno; North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh; University of North Dakota, Grand Forks; and Southwestern Institute of Technology, Weatherford, Okla.

Nor does the list stop here. Dozens of applications are still in the hands of applicants, who are completing engineering and programming surveys or waiting for appropriations or actions of boards to be taken up at early meetings. These latter institutions or school systems in many cases, represent groups who have had long experience in radio and have consistently pooled their experiences at this time to own and operate their own educational stations.

Evidence is shown everywhere of the hearty cooperation of local commercially owned stations and networks in furthering the effort on the part of education to provide its own facilities. In areas of general educational effort, news, foreign coverage, features, and educational series, the great local station throughout this country will not cease in its effort to provide a balanced program of entertainment, education, and news to its listening public.

Fund of Experience Now Available

Educational radio management has a fund of experience to its credit—not only in FM stations, in leading school systems, and in colleges—but also in the regular AM stations long-operated successfully in some 30 additional universities and colleges. We must look to this group for guidance and for practical help. The U. S. Office of Education and the Federal Radio Education Committee, its working partner, have anticipated the demands to be made upon them this year and are ready to extend to every new station the fullest cooperation and personal services of its staff in solving the individual problems which are bound to arise as transactions are completed and stations go into operation. Meanwhile, the bulletin, *FM in Education*, has been revised to bring it up-to-date, and no effort will be spared to increase the scope of the work and further the extent to which the frequencies assigned to education will blanket the country in the next 5 years. This is the goal that has been set up, and the U. S. Office of Education and the Federal Radio Education Committee are eager to cooperate in every possible way with the State-planned networks and individual stations.

Fat Salvage

Necessities such as soap, electrical appliances, tires, and paint are *still in short supply*. Teachers and students can help by continuing concerted drives to save and turn in used cooking fats.

The plain facts are that the shortages in fats and oils continue to be desperate say the authorities.

A Curriculum for the Child's Health

This article is one in a series on Health Education for the Elementary School, contributed by Helen M. Manley, Health Instruction and Physical Education.

CURRICULUM and objectives are good educational words, and educators affirm and reaffirm a belief in "one learns by doing." Everything Jimmy does at school is part of his curriculum—all his school activities either have wholesome educational value or they do not. In the former case, they belong in the school day; in the latter, they do not. In this sense there is no such thing as extracurricular activities. The pupil and his living are the important points for attention—he must grow and develop.

The instruction program of our school day plans for that growth and development and enlarges each child's living experiences in proportion to his potentialities for being an integrated personality. Jimmy, age seven, is a minute late to school. He hurries in, stumbles over Mary's foot, and skins his knee. Then he bends far over his desk, grasps his pencil tightly, and frowns a great deal. He has a swollen left jaw, and he puts his finger in his mouth; he goes to the toilet, returns, and starts to wash his hands. The water pitcher is empty so he sits down and continues frowning and putting his finger in his mouth. In the class discussion of work on the farm, he tells the class he got up at 4 o'clock; the children laughed because he said "twuck" instead of "truck." At lunch he ate only a few bites of his sandwich, and when the children went out to play he wanted to stay inside; when he did play, he fell frequently and couldn't catch the ball.

Here is where Jimmy is. Our curriculum must take him from here to happier living. It is obvious that there

are many phases of health education involved in Jimmy's status, and that Jimmy is ready and presents the "teachable moment" for health instruction. "The educated person,"¹ according to the Educational Policies Commission, "understands the basic facts concerning health and disease, protects his own health and that of his dependents, works to improve the health of the community." Our schools are planning to educate Jimmy. He must know what causes aching teeth, what to do for skinned knees, and how to run without falling; he must have opportunities to

taught us that the same events usually occur at rather regular intervals.

Teaching around specific unusual incidents should, of course, be interspersed. Bicycle and traffic accidents occur when children start coming to school in September; health examinations are a definite teaching incident; colds in our temperate zone are frequent in October and February. Sometimes courses of study are made out around regular incidents with leeway, of course, for putting in the unusual; in fact, some large schools have the health instruction throughout the school system so set up.



Courtesy Cleveland, Ohio, Public Schools.

use the knowledge he has acquired, and through good teaching must have received inspiration and a desire to practice the learnings.

Variety of Approaches

Health materials should be based on the immediacy of the need and the interest and comprehension of the child. There are a variety of approaches in getting helpful knowledge to children in the elementary school; perhaps no one could be termed a "best," but a combination of many is often used successfully. One that has been frequently advocated is incidental teaching, or teaching as the occasion arises. This can often take a quite definite form, as experience has

For instance: In September all grades, with the subject matter keyed to the child's comprehension, study safety; October, health—examination findings, eyes, ears, etc.; November, the month of the turkey, nutrition; December, warm clothing and body care; January and February, the communicable diseases; in the spring, with the usual clean-up day, growth and development, exercise, and fresh air.

In other schools these same areas of learning are deemed important to the child, but the specific phases are highlighted every 3 or 4 years. For instance,

¹ *Health in Schools*. Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. National Education Association. 1942. p. 8.

during the first, fourth, seventh, and tenth years, communicable disease will be one of the areas of learning stressed; while in the second, fifth, eighth, and eleventh, nutrition will be high-lighted. Thus, the entire health instruction program will be covered each 3 years, geared to the interest of the child. In each classroom the teacher, of course, brings in other materials which are temporarily important, as studying about polio during that epidemic, or safety during safety week.

Another approach is through the careful study of the child's day of living. What does he do and what, therefore, does he need to learn? He sleeps, eats, goes to the bathroom, comes to school, and works and plays with others. All of these things are of interest and importance to the child. The classroom teacher in this approach will set down and talk with the individual child and counsel him on his specific health problem. This method is one of the best, and will be a phase of the entire school guidance program. It is apparent, however, that it is time-consuming and will necessitate there being fewer children to the elementary school classroom.

The unit approach has been used frequently with excellent results. It centers the health-teaching program around the interests of children at different age levels. The usual first-grade unit would be on home life. This is what the child knows, and health learnings can be tied into what he does at home and at school. Activities of various sorts can be centered around this unit. Teachers have had animals in the classroom—a dog, rabbits, rats, chickens. Children have learned the health needs of animals and have been able to adapt these to their own living. Children have built and furnished homes and have established grocery stores, made cookies, and canned vegetables.

An Indian unit in the third or fourth grade can graphically bring to these children the importance of health to the Indians and to the third- or fourth-grade children themselves; while a unit on the age of science can interestingly tie into a sixth-grade child's consciousness the fact that his muscles move by scientific laws and the power that makes efficient movement depends on the scientific use of food.

Direct class instruction has been used

and abused. It is evident that in all the various approaches, there is some direct teaching. Leaving any type of teaching to incidental happenings would give no assurance that Jimmy would learn the facts that he needs in order to become an educated person. The old type of schedule with "so many minutes a day" at a certain time of any given subject-matter material, including health, is perhaps disappearing from our elementary schools. Varied lengths of time and procedures to meet the specific situation each day are now governing factors. The use of textbooks in the field of health has increased as the content of these texts has improved in educational value. Health textbooks are being written which are interesting to children and which deal with incidents pertinent to their everyday life. These are proving to be a source of enjoyment and information to children, and give security to children and teachers alike.

Build Around Interests and Needs

Jimmy may get his factual information in a variety of ways; whether he transfers the knowledge into practice depends upon such things as:

1. The immediacy of his need for the material taught.
2. The presentation of the material.
3. The extent to which the teacher inspires him to change knowledge into practice.
4. The facility he has for using his knowledge in his home, his school, and his community.

A curriculum for the child's health means that the school day must be built around the interests and needs of the child. A child is interested in his body; he discovers and explores various parts in his first few months of life; he has great curiosity, and is imaginative and imitative. He likes to use his body, to kick things, to handle things, to make things. He is individualistic at times, and at other strongly group-conscious. He is interested in play and in the use of the big muscles of the body. He is serious; the things he is doing are important to him.

Activity is essential to growth and is a part of the school curriculum. In all lands, play is a chief occupation of the young person in his waking hours. Through play, the child attains growth and experience; at play he completely loses himself. The phase of health in-

volving big-muscle activity, when brought into the school, is called Physical Education. It is directly concerned with activity: the body is the vehicle; the large motor area, the tools. Its specific task is to make the body an efficient instrument to meet life's situations. The activities in this phase of learning must then promote sufficient organic vigor to enable one to do his maximum day's work, to acquire neuromuscular skill sufficient to do that work without overstrain, and to experience social experiences provocative of democratic living.

The elementary school child needs and wants activity. There is no trouble motivating the program; it can even be used as a basis of integration for the whole curriculum. There are extraordinary opportunities here for group consciousness; it is the age of belonging. It is also the best time to teach the motor skills which will affect the entire life of the child. A boy who lacks the motor ability to play the games in junior high school is emotionally handicapped. To the girl, appearance is important during her whole life; if she lacks good standing, sitting, and walking habits, she is decidedly handicapped in looking her best. Play is training in socialization; it weans a child away from self-centeredness in regard to playthings, to the group, and to people. This progress will go on with or without the teacher, but it is important that it be given direction and that outcomes be planned. In play, one learns to judge and be judged and to expect things from his colleagues as they expect certain responses from him. Social and emotional maturity are achieved through play only if there is freedom plus the sense of responsibility. In games and rhythms the child has both. The teacher sees that the player who errs finds no alibis to evade responsibility. Play is a great ally in preventing a personality from becoming ingrown.

Habits of locomotion are formed in childhood and skills in coordinated movement are learned best in pre-adolescent years. Some people, who realize that children love activity and naturally take it in youth, feel that it can be intrusted to chance that children will get what they so generally want and that no teaching is necessary. This, of course, is a fallacy; to achieve a civiliza-

tion in which each individual is able to use his body to its optimum, a well-planned and skillfully taught program of activity must be woven into the child's school day.

Working Activity Into Day's Plan

We have noted before some of the elementary school child's characteristics; the specific areas that will affect other planning of the program for our first-grade are these. He is active, not well-coordinated, tires easily, loves to imitate, is imaginative, creative, and individualistic. His activity then will be worked into the day's plan with:

1. Aids for his coordination and motor ability.

Example: Correct walking movement to rhythm.

Control in quick starts and stops.

2. Games will be mostly individualistic and will not stress speed or endurance.
3. Opportunities will be given to use his body well in all the creative work—his singing, his art, and his dramatic play.
4. His fun and satisfaction in his play now and in later years will come from his ability to do certain things; so he will be taught skills.

Example: A first-grade child should be able to throw and catch a ball 10 feet; be able to climb.

5. He is part of a big world, and to be happy must get along with the people in that world. Thus the social attitudes, which sometimes appear in the rough in the play periods, will be constantly improved, and Jimmy will go into the second grade, still Jimmy the individual, but with ability to change some of his "I" wants to fit into the wants of the group.

His second-, third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade programs will have been planned according to his physiological and anatomical level as well as to his mental progress. So when he comes to the sixth grade we find that—

1. He has the physical vigor to go through his day without over-fatigue.
2. He has skills which enable him to be respected in his child society; i. e., he knows the skills in the games his colleagues play.
3. He has skills which enable him to protect himself from daily hazards, i. e., he can dodge, stop, and start quickly, fall with relaxation, and run without falling.
4. He enjoys competitive games, and can play by rule and with consideration for his teammates and opponents.
5. His body is in good alignment; he stands, sits, and walks with ease, agility, and coordination.

Dynamic action must be in tune with rest and relaxation. Our growing human animal needs, in his school day, frequent short periods of entire change and relaxation and also time and adequate facilities to lie down in a completely prone position, to stretch, to rest, and to learn scientifically and practically the way to relax and the means of getting his nervously stimulated body completely limp and rested. Schools have worked out various methods of providing this opportunity. The nailed-down desks have disappeared, and the chairs are put in diverse arrangements for variety and a better learning situation. Activity periods at unexpected times in all phases of learning provide the change and "differentness" that enable children to relax. Chairs are cornered at rest time and children may have cots, towels, small sheets, or even paper on which to stretch. In some classrooms the children have brought paper bags from the cleaners, designed an individual pattern on them to distinguish each his own bag and the floor side, and have hung them up after rest period. Rest is the fourth "R" in that school day.

The Core of the Curriculum

A curriculum for a child's health means that he, Jimmy, is the core of the curriculum. All teaching, every day, is around his needs and interests. If he has remediable handicaps that interfere with his normal enjoyment of the wholesome child activities, they are treated. If he has irremediable mental and physical handicaps, a happy place in his school world is provided and one that will also help him to fit into the society in which he will find himself as an adult. This Jimmy with his aching tooth, speech defect, and lumbering movement; Johnny with low IQ; Mary the spastic; and Jerry the genius, all have different—yet specific—needs which if met will require more money now for education, but less later for adjustment centers and prisons. It will mean smaller classes; teachers who think, feel, and have time to live in each day's work the philosophy that each little child is important; principals, supervisors, and teachers who plan each day for each child with the thought, as Morley's ghost, "Mankind is my business," and that bit of mankind, the elementary school child.

EDUCATIONAL REPORT

A BRIEF bulletin has recently been published entitled *Public Education in Idaho*. This is a digest of a comprehensive report of an educational survey and has the same title as the report. The publication is a result of a study of the Idaho public-school situation arranged by the 1945 legislature to serve as a basis for meeting postwar needs in education. Heading the special staff employed for the survey was John E. Brewton, Director, Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. The digest report is published by the Division. An example of the contents of the digest is the following page from the bulletin, entitled *Are Idaho Children Enrolled in School?*

Idaho leads the nation in the percentage of children of school age who are enrolled in school.

Look!

Percentage enrolled in school

	Percent
Idaho.....	96
The Nation.....	84

Idaho high schools have excellent holding power. In 1941-42 the loss in high-school pupils in a 4-year period was:

	Percent
Idaho.....	25
The Nation.....	34

Idaho ranks thirteenth among the States with respect to the percentage of its population ages 18-22 that are enrolled in institutions of higher education in their own States.

World Organization Authorized

A NEW organization to be known as the World Organization of the Teaching Profession, was authorized by unanimous vote at the World Conference of the Teaching Profession held in August at Endicott, N. Y. The conference, sponsored by the National Education Association, was attended by delegates from 28 countries. The new organization will be formally established when 10 nations approve the charter.

THE UNKNOWN TEACHER

I sing the praise of the unknown teacher.

Great generals win campaigns, but it is the unknown soldier who wins the war.

Famous educators plan new systems of pedagogy, but it is the unknown teacher who delivers and guides the young. He lives in obscurity and contends with hardship. For him no trumpets blare, no chariots wait, no golden decorations are decreed. He keeps the watch along the borders of darkness and makes the attack on the trenches of ignorance and folly. Patient in his daily duty, he strives to conquer the evil powers which are the enemies of youth. He awakens sleeping spirits. He quickens the indolent, encourages the eager, and steadies the unstable. He communicates his own joy in learning and shares with boys and girls the best treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which, in later years, will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward.

Knowledge may be gained from books; but the love of knowledge is transmitted only by personal contact. No one has deserved better of the republic than the unknown teacher. No one is more worthy to be enrolled in a democratic aristocracy, "king of himself and servant of mankind."

—HENRY VAN DYKE.

THE KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE EMPORIA

At Kansas State Teachers College, posters, of which the above is a sample, are distributed to all high-school principals in the State—709 in all. They go out each month in an effort to interest young people in the teaching profession.

Technicolor Film Available

Prints of a 16-mm sound projector film, *America the Beautiful*, are available for free showings to schools, teachers' conventions, and similar meetings. The picture is in full technicolor and runs 18 minutes. It is recommended for children from the fourth grade on—and also for adults—as an entertaining, inspiring, and forceful story. For arrangements in securing a print for school showing, get in touch with your State Savings Bond office.

More People Employed

EMPLOYMENT climbed steadily from March through June of this year, reaching a new postwar high in mid-June of 29,200,000 jobs in establishments covered by State unemployment insurance laws, Watson B. Miller, Administrator of the Federal Security Agency, reported recently.

This was the highest level reached since April 1945, just before Germany's surrender, and was 2,100,000 below the all-time high in covered employment of June 1943, when 31,300,000 jobs were reported. Greatest increases in employment, according to the report, were in the contract construction industry; automobile manufacturing; stone, clay, and glass industries; and lumber processing.

Students Can Save

PUPILS are being taught to buy bonds, save, and help combat inflation. Through the school-savings program conducted by the United States Treasury, children get experience handling money, investing, and organizing their own programs for the sale of stamps and bonds. To help guide students in these activities, teachers and principals can write for the *School Savings Journal*, available free from the Education Section, U. S. Savings Bond Division, Treasury Department, Washington 25, D. C. The fall issue of the journal contains suggestions for a social-studies unit for grades 4-12, a study unit for elementary grades, and suggestions to aid teachers in the school-savings program.

Professional Guidance Training As An Element In Providing Educational Opportunities

by Franklin R. Zeran, Specialist, Occupational Information and Guidance Service

EDUCATION must deal with people. Likewise, educational opportunities must be considered in the light of how they react upon and for John and Mary; of their effect upon boys and girls, each one having problems peculiar to his own way of living. All educational opportunities available to youth must be translated according to aptitudes, abilities, interests, attitudes, limitations, and opportunities. Some of the following boys and girls can perhaps be found in almost any classroom:

1. This boy, no matter how hard he works, is unable to pass English, social studies, or mathematics, but wants to be an engineer.

2. This girl and her parents insist that she be allowed to take stenography because she isn't going to college and can't pass a foreign language, does poorly in history, and never could get through algebra.

3. This pupil, a boy of superior ability, just won't "crack" a book in order to work up to capacity.

4. This pupil is the son of a widow and has two younger brothers and a sister. His mother's earnings are not enough to provide the necessities of life for all five. He is an apt student in the sciences and mathematics as well as in shop work. The money which he could earn by working full-time would help the family in obtaining at least the necessities of life.

5. This girl is unusually shy and is upset because of her inability to be one of the gang.

6. This girl should wear glasses, but refuses to do so because they would "spoil her looks."

7. This girl would like to be a nurse or stenographer, or an accountant, or a newspaper reporter, or a beautician. Tomorrow it will be something else.

8. This boy seems to have a green finger and is only interested in reading about plants.

9. This boy can sell anything, but is sloppy in dress and manner.

10. This girl, the daughter of wealthy parents, is an above-average student, and about average in dramatic ability. She is aware of these facts. The mother, ambitious for her daughter to play the lead in all school plays and to be the head of all of her clubs, pushes her daughter's cause through entertaining the teachers,

the dramatics coach, and a few selected pupils who have a "following." The daughter is not anxious to be the lead or the president.

11. This boy has returned to school with a crippled arm and a slight limp, as a result of polio. Previously he had been an outstanding athlete, a leader in the social whirl, and anxious to be a professional baseball player.

12. This girl is an excellent student. Her parents, who are of foreign birth, believe she has gone to school "long enough for a girl" and want her to drop out and get a job.

To the degree that these specific needs of John and Mary are met, throughout the country, can it be said that the community, the State, or the Federal Government has provided educational opportunities for all.

Goal To Be Achieved

The individual and his personal development must be the goal to be achieved as a result of the educational program in a democracy. This development cannot take place or be planned for without knowledge of the individual's characteristics. Since the information needed to counsel a pupil at any given time may concern his health, educational achievement, attitudes, interests, abilities, family relations, hobbies, work experiences, or other pertinent characteristics, it is essential that these data be cumulative, recorded, and available for use. While identifying and recording an individual's characteristics is a function of the guidance program, it is only through the wise interpretation and use of these data that their recording and filing take on meaning. Training in the interpretation and use of these data is an essential element in the preparation of administrators, teachers, and counselors if we are to teach *individuals* and not merely *lessons*. The first requisite of teaching is to discover the kind of person the pupil is. We must first "learn" Johnny before we can teach him.

The opportunity to earn a living is the right and responsibility of each individual in a democracy. As such, occupational opportunities should be identified and the information made available to all individuals. This is a guidance function. However, in order to identify properly the various levels of occupational opportunities and to disseminate properly the information, it is essential that training in survey techniques be available to and included in the preparation of administrators, teachers, and counselors.

To be a productive member of society, an individual should be given assistance in the art of living, as well as in making a living. This assistance to the individual should take the form of helping him identify, understand, and solve his problems by facing facts and using them in making plans. This objective is achieved through the counseling process. Counseling is both an art and a science. It would be fortunate if all faculty and staff members were equally able to do good counseling; but because of such elements as personality, interest, training, and experience some will be more able than others to counsel pupils. However, the total counseling job is not a one-person responsibility. This is equally true in large-sized, medium-sized, or small schools. While definite assignments as counselors must be made to certain faculty members, there is need in any organized counseling program for cooperative action on the part of all faculty members if the counseling responsibilities are to be carried out. Specific training is essential if the individual is to be helped to identify and understand a problem the existence of which he recognizes, to focus and interpret all facts which have a bearing on it, and to find solutions and make decisions and plans. Specific training is necessary in the inventorying and appraising of facts as well as in developing competency in various methods of approaching the individual's problems.

The right of an individual to earn a living in a democracy carries with it the obligation to that individual that there will be a close and desirable relationship between that individual's aptitudes, abilities, attitudes, interests, and limitations, and his objectives—whether they be training or jobs. If John or Mary

has a right to expect that the school will assist in the acquiring of those skills and attitudes necessary for making satisfactory adjustments—socially and emotionally—then their adjustment to learning, training, or working situations cannot be ignored. Vocational choice, based upon a careful study of the objective and its relationship to the individual's abilities, interests, and limitations, is an outcome of a guidance program. To do this necessary counseling demands training in order to be able to identify and isolate the objective so that it can be studied and analyzed in terms of the individual's abilities and limitations.

Obligations of the School

If we are to subscribe to educational opportunities for all as an actual possibility instead of as a theory, then we are under obligation to offer such education as will fit the needs of the individual Johns and Marys. If training is to meet the needs and abilities of the pupils, we must fit the school to the needs of each individual pupil rather than force the individual to fit the offerings of the school—however unsuitable these may be for either the pupil or the community. Thus, it is the responsibility of the school to evaluate and modify its program of offerings in light of what happens to all who have enrolled—whether they be graduates or drop-outs. It is only through a continuing follow-up of its school-leavers that the school is in a position to ascertain whether its products are marketable in an ever-changing consumer's market. Then, after accumulating the data, it is the obligation of the school to modify its program so as to turn out up-to-date products into a stream-lined, atomic-period labor market. Surely training in the planning for and the gathering, interpreting, and using of survey data is a necessary element in the preparation of all administrators, teachers, and counselors.

In a democracy it is also the obligation of the school to meet the needs of the community which supports it. Changing conditions in both urban and rural areas have emphasized the need for studying the community as well as its individuals. Only through careful study is it possible to determine the

problems of the community, analyze them, and then meet them. Such study must include data on the occupational levels of the community as well as the socio-economic life of its people. Community occupational surveys and follow-up studies of school-leavers will provide pertinent data relative to the number of pupils entering and pursuing higher education, the occupational distributions of those who have entered employment, the number employed, the approximately beginning salaries of workers, the types of training pursued, the type and amount of supplementary training needed to hold or progress in the present position, or training needed to secure a job. The information thus secured is both objective and factual. As such its implications for guidance activities and the curriculum are practical and effective. The training of all the school staff—administrators, teachers, and counselors—should assist and prepare them so to serve the school and the community.

Entire Faculty Should Participate

If a guidance program is to help provide better educational opportunities, there must be certain elements operating in the local schools. The work of a guidance program cannot be carried on in any school, no matter how well provided with specialists on the staff, unless the entire faculty understands and sympathizes with the objectives of the program and, in fact, participates in many of the activities required. There must be an acceptance by the administrator and the staff of guidance principles and active participation in the program by all. Certain responsibilities and duties of the administrator, counselor, classroom teacher, vocational teacher, and librarian are here outlined.

A. Responsibilities and duties of the administrator

Guidance programs will flourish only when the administrator has the personnel point of view. The administrator's task is one of planning, organizing, and coordinating the efforts of all, in order to place the appropriate emphasis on the guidance program. To achieve this goal, it will be necessary for the administrator to recognize four closely related factors of the program:

1. Guidance leadership.
2. Services of special consultants.
3. The participation of all staff members.

4. An evolving curriculum and a flexibility in scheduling pupils, based on evidence of the individual pupil's needs as revealed by a functioning guidance program.

In view of these statements, the following functions of guidance are suggested as the responsibility of the administrator:

1. *Administrative.*—
 - (a) Make adequate provision in the budget for carrying on the guidance program.
 - (b) Establish and maintain a cumulative record system.
2. *Organizational.*—
 - (a) Recognize the need and importance of a comprehensive guidance program and give it his personal support.
 - (b) Make his staff cognizant of the value, functions, and problems of guidance.
 - (c) Work out and coordinate the guidance program cooperatively with members of the staff.
 - (d) Provide for a guidance committee.
 - (e) Coordinate all available extra-school resources to aid in the program.
 - (f) Give desirable publicity to improve school, home, and community relationships.
3. *Inventorying of guidance needs.*—
 - (a) Take stock of existing activities and services which can be considered as serving the guidance program.
4. *Personnel needs.*—
 - (a) Select best-qualified individuals as counselors.
 - (b) Offer special inducements and recognition to counselors in the guidance program where extra services and training are required.
5. *Scheduling.*—
 - (a) Arrange the school schedule so that every pupil may have an opportunity for counseling services.
 - (b) See that ample time is allowed the counselor.
6. *Equipment, supplies, and quarters.*—
 - (a) Provide suitable quarters and facilities for the counseling service.
7. *Program planning.*—
 - (a) Evaluate and revise curricula in an endeavor to meet pupil needs.
 - (b) Offer extraclass (co-curricular) activities to aid in all-around pupil development.
8. *In-service training for staff members.*—
9. *Evaluation of the program.*—

B. Responsibilities and duties of the counselor¹

Certain definite phases of the guidance program can best be carried on by a trained counselor. His duties, in part, are:

1. To establish procedures that will result in providing an individual inventory for each

¹ *Proceedings of the 6th National Conference of State Supervisors of Occupational Information and Guidance.* (U. S. Office of Education. V. D. Bulletin No. 235, 1945.) pp. 47-50.

pupil and will make this information accessible to all members of the school staff, so that its use will provide a better understanding of the pupil and thus contribute to his individual needs.

2. To provide for the collection and dissemination of occupational information.

3. To counsel with individuals. Counseling will involve, even in any one interview, some or all of the following problems:

(a) Choice of a vocation or area of occupation.

(b) Program of training necessary to prepare for or lead to entry into chosen occupation or occupational area.

(c) Adjustments in the student's educational training plans.

(d) Adjustments in his occupational plans.

(e) Many related problems involving individual development, improvements, and adjustment in his physical, mental, and emotional growth.

4. To carry on placement work by assisting graduates, drop-outs, and part-time students in obtaining employment within range of their interests, abilities, and aptitudes directly or through other established agencies. Placement should also be interpreted broadly to include adjustment into the student's next phase of life activity, whether wage-earning or not.

5. To make follow-up studies for the purpose of evaluating and improving the school curriculum, and of assisting the pupils in modifying plans to solve old problems and adjust to new ones.

6. To serve as a resource person in regard to guidance for all members of the staff.

7. To be responsible for the testing in his building.

C. Responsibilities and duties of the classroom teacher

Every teacher, whether he is conscious of the fact or not, has an important role to play in the guidance program. The position of the classroom teacher is of such a nature that he can give valuable assistance to the pupil, particularly with regard to occupations related to his field, these being occupations for which that particular subject is necessary and those for which it is recommended. His duties and responsibilities are:

In the area of the individual inventory.—

1. Assist in the compilation of the cumulative record.

2. Keep pupils' individual inventory up-to-date.

3. Have a thorough knowledge of every pupil in his group.

4. Furnish the counselor information concerning pupils.

5. Secure necessary information to aid in parent contacts.

In the phase of occupational information.—

1. Cooperate with school counselors in the dissemination of occupational information.

2. Contribute occupational information from his own specialized field.

3. Stress, with careful regard to realistic conditions, the occupational value of subjects taught.

4. Provide developmental group activities in citizenship, leadership, and personality.

5. Explain the importance of traits of character and personality needed to become a successful worker.

6. Help the student to evaluate important outcomes of successful work in addition to salary.

7. Encourage the pupil to work up to capacity.

8. Assist in preparing assembly programs dealing with vocational guidance.

9. Interpret the vocational implications of school subjects and help students develop proper work attitudes.

10. Assist the counselor in arranging and carrying out occupational trips.

11. Assist in the development of poster materials, plays, and similar activities related to guidance.

12. Encourage the use of visual and auditory aids.

In the field of counseling.—

1. Be on the alert for interests, aptitudes, plans, and behavior patterns which the student's counselor should know about.

2. Direct to the counselor those individuals who need specialized help.

3. Serve on committees related to the guidance program.

4. Study and practice good interviewing and counseling procedures to make any counseling that he may be asked to do more effective.

D. Responsibilities and duties of the vocational teacher

The vocational teacher should stress the vocational aspects of the individual taking the course. Occupational information should also be relayed to other teachers, giving possibilities of more vocational aspects. Thus the vocational teacher should be used as a source of occupational information. The vocational teacher should contribute articles for the school paper about work, trends, training, and such other information as may be helpful.

Guidance responsibilities of vocational teachers of such subjects as home economics, commercial training, diversified occupations, distributive education, and trade and industrial education, are both general and specific. Their *general* duties should include information about the pupil relative to his personality traits, interests, occupational training needs, and work habits. Their *specific* duties relate to use of test results compiled by the guidance department, and assistance in the proper selection of individuals both in to and out of their courses.

E. Responsibilities and duties of the librarian

The librarian, being indispensable in a well-rounded guidance program, should:

1. Be familiar with and sympathetic toward the guidance program.

2. Be willing to make the library a laboratory for pupils seeking occupational information.

3. Be eager to make students "guidance conscious."

4. File and catalog material in accordance with standard practices.

5. Assist teachers in assembling and distributing guidance materials.

6. Prepare files of school and college catalogs.

7. Set up a plan for the circulation of books, pamphlets, periodicals, and clippings about occupations among pupils and members of the school faculty.

If administrators, counselors, and teachers are to be prepared to carry out their responsibilities and duties and if the guidance program is to help provide better educational opportunities, professional guidance training must be available. While the personnel required in a guidance program may vary in training and experience according to the activities engaged in, it can be seen that the more technical training any individual staff member has, the more competent will he be in handling John's and Mary's various problems. Moreover, since certain duties in a guidance program require technical training on a professional level, there should be in every school at least one person, part-time or full-time, with specialized training to act as counselor and to supply leadership.

Objectives That Should Be Met

Training should be offered at the undergraduate level as well as at the graduate or professional level. At the undergraduate level, besides providing a basic foundation for further preparation in the guidance field, the following objectives should be met:

1. To create an understanding of the need for *organized* guidance services in the educational program.

2. To survey the underlying philosophy and the basic principles of a guidance program.

3. To develop an understanding of the nature and function of the individual inventory in the guidance program.

4. To give an overview of the nature, sources, and uses of occupational and related training opportunities.

5. To become acquainted with the basic techniques of counseling.

6. To develop an appreciation of the need for discovering and utilizing community resources in the guidance program.

These objectives may be met through a course in the basic elements of the guidance program, which should be available to all students in teacher-training institutions. Since all who teach or administer the school must deal each day with boys and girls, it follows that the teacher and administrator should be well-grounded in the guidance services which their school should offer, as well as in the part they can play in their program. Other course offerings taken at the undergraduate level might be: Occupational information techniques, counseling techniques, individual inventory techniques, as well as such studies as are concerned with social and human relationships—psychology, sociology, economics, labor problems, and other similar areas of special need and interest to the student. While the above program of course offerings will not produce a specialist in guidance work, it will enable the teacher and the administrator to participate more effectively in the guidance program.

At the graduate or professional level, the offerings must be sufficiently flexible to meet the varying interests and needs of the individual trainees; for example: This person wishes to specialize in testing; this person is interested in occupational information; while a third is interested in the administrative phases. In all cases the trainee's background of experience and training should be evaluated. Major areas to be covered at the graduate level might include: Understanding the individual; occupations, with a survey of related education and training; counseling; research and evaluation in guidance; and organizational relationships of the guidance program.

It is recognized that the success of a program for the training of counselors depends in large measure upon selection of persons with suitable personality traits, and proper backgrounds with respect to previous education and experi-

ence. While colleges and universities must assume the major share of the responsibility in the selection for admission to graduate training programs, it is a definite responsibility of the administrator to recommend for training those teachers who, through their experiences and activities in the school system, have proved themselves to be suited to counseling work.

In any guidance program in-service training is essential to the effective development and progress of that program. It is the administrator's responsibility actively to plan, promote, and assist in the in-service training of his faculty, both on-the-job and during summer sessions. A first step for the administrator will be to take stock of those existing services and activities which might be considered as serving the guidance program. From here the way leads logically to doing better the things already being done and working them into a definite program. As the program demonstrates its usefulness and as the faculty adds to its skills in the use of guidance tools, additional services should be added. Guidance services are the responsibility of all members of the faculty and administrative staff. This principle calls for cooperative action as well as an understanding on the part of each individual as to what he can contribute. An in-service training program is the surest means of bringing about this desired cooperation and understanding. Such a program is essential, also, to improve the abilities of those who carry specific responsibilities and to give new understandings and increased skills in the techniques of the guidance program to all members of the faculty and staff.

What May Be Expected From Guidance Programs

If the guidance program is to help provide better educational opportunities, steps must be taken to inform parents and pupils as to what they may expect from such a program. Through the services of a guidance program, that Johnny and Mary and their parents will be helped:²

1. To discover and analyze each his own abilities, aptitudes, interests, progress, and needs.

2. To develop plans and set personal goals for each consistent with his abilities, aptitudes, interests, and needs.

3. To find suitable placement for learning or training, and each to receive aid appropriate to his abilities, aptitudes, interests, needs, and plans.

4. To receive the necessary kind of handling and to acquire the skills and attitudes for making satisfactory adjustments, socially and emotionally.

5. To find suitable job placement, transition, and follow-up in his adjustment to out-of-school living.

6. To benefit from continuous, competent, and sufficiently personalized handling in school to permit individualized counseling as a continuous process rather than an event.

Parents and pupils who expect to secure results from the guidance program assume certain responsibilities—responsibilities of parents and of the Johns and Marys to cooperate so that the guidance program may operate most effectively. It is their responsibility to assist those in charge of the inventories in the accumulation of such data on health, hobbies, work experiences, and socio-economic status as will be needed to reflect their patterns in the counseling interview. It is their responsibility to analyze John's or Mary's plans and goals in light of their abilities, aptitudes, and limitations. While it is fine to "hitch one's wagon to a star," reality forces us to keep the wagon's wheels on the ground.

Better educational opportunities for all youth can become a reality. They must be based upon the needs of the individual to fit him to serve society to the best of his ability. The services of a guidance program provide tools to analyze the individual and his environment and thus assist him to serve society. Professional guidance training is needed to enable teachers, counselors, and administrators to become skilled artisans in the use of the tools of a guidance program.

² *Minneapolis Evaluates Its Guidance Service.* (The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 30, No. 135, January 1946.) p. 13.

National Conference On Juvenile Delinquency

School's Role Discussed

IN THE TRUEST SENSE, every city, town, and village in America has the delinquency it deserves." In these words one of the panels of the National Conference for the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency placed squarely upon the community the responsibility for preventing and controlling delinquency among children and youth.

Coming from the panel on Mental Hygiene and Child Guidance Clinics, this statement was echoed repeatedly during the 3-day conference called by the Department of Justice on November 20-22. President Truman made specific application of it when he said in his message to the Conference: "The roots of the problem lie in the homes, the schools, and the churches of our Nation."

School as Preventive Agency

One of 15 panels that worked to prepare preliminary reports to be presented to the Conference was the panel on the school. Its Chairman was Thomas G. Pullen, Maryland State Superintendent of Schools, with Donald DuShane of the National Education Association as Vice-Chairman. This panel gave primary consideration to the work of the school as a preventive agency.

Stressing, as other panels of the conference did, that juvenile delinquency is the responsibility of the entire community, the school panel discussions centered on the kind of schools which every community should have. Among essentials governing a good school, the following principles were emphasized:

1. Every child is considered a unique individual.
2. Every child is entitled to a flexible educational program.
3. Development of habits, skills, attitudes, and ideals is the function of the school.
4. Spiritual and moral values should be stressed through the educational program.

5. Every child should experience achievement and satisfaction.

6. The ultimate aim of education in the United States is citizenship in a democracy.

7. The above principles apply wherever the child may live.

The school should set up its objectives in terms of desired changes in behavior that characterize the well-integrated and useful citizen. Effective schools attempt to develop in boys and girls knowledge, skills, habits, and attitudes that culminate in desirable behavior. They should not be content to teach children to read, write, and verbalize the Golden Rule; they should also teach them to live according to the Golden Rule. The school should evaluate its services not only in terms of the pupil's answers to test questions but in terms of the everyday behavior of its children in the school, home, and community.

The Committee stated that "In addition to the discharge of its primary responsibility, namely, the organization of an educational program that is sufficiently flexible and enriching to meet individual needs, the school has a part to play in the treatment of social problems and in the control of conditions in the community that affect the well-being of children generally. Neither the school nor any other agency can hope to solve the complex and many-sided problem of juvenile delinquency alone. Only to the extent that the schools and other community agencies and services join together and coordinate their activities in a systematic and many-sided attack upon a many-sided problem can the community and Nation expect to bring about a substantial reduction in juvenile delinquency. So long as each agency continues to work independently of every other agency, a one-sided, fragmentary, and scattered effort is inevitable."

A guide for evaluating the school's program, including 20 questions and answers in the report, suggests practices that are likely to become a constructive

force in the prevention and control of undesirable behavior. These questions may well become a measuring rod for a study of the needs of the community by the superintendent, his staff, and representatives of citizen groups, as a co-operating body.

The Home

The panel discussing the responsibility of the home held that parents should not be made the scapegoat in placing blame for juvenile delinquency. In considering what attitude is most constructive in dealing with boys and girls who get into trouble, members of the panel indicated that parents must be helped to find out what is wrong with the conditions under which they are living and to do something useful. Blaming or punishing children or parents doesn't make sense. Children need the experience of facing the consequences of their antisocial behavior. They also need much more. All the adults who work with children—the parents, the teacher, the minister, the school principal—should try to understand the reasons why children get into trouble. This attitude, the panel thought, is not soft or easy-going. On the other hand it is hard, realistic, and honest because it is based on facts.

The panel on the home pointed out that "good" homes are more prevalent than people realize. Most parents love their children and want to do the best they can; yet even the best parents have problems which get in the way of doing what they hope for their children. Sometimes parents may have excellent understanding and easy ability to deal with their children at one age, but cannot cope with them at another.

The panel on the home as well as the one on the schools recommended that schools help parents meet their responsibilities more adequately by offering a carefully planned program of parent education, with opportunities for parents to study child development and family relations. The school should in-

vite parents to participate in the planning, development, and evaluation of the school program. Attention was also called to the need for the school to strengthen the curriculum in helping youth to understand human relationships, in preparing them for personal adjustments involving love, courtship, and marriage, and in acquainting them with the most essential facts concerning child growth and development.

Other Panels Urge School Action

Other panels that presented findings were those on (1) the Church; (2) Child Guidance Clinics; (3) Institutional Treatment; (4) Recreation; (5) Youth Participation; (6) Citizen Participation; (7) Case Work; (8) Role of Police; (9) Juvenile Courts and Detention; (10) Housing; (11) Rural Aspects; (12) Community Coordination; (13) Statistics. Many of these made reference to the importance of the school as a preventive agency and to the ways in which schools and other agencies can work together toward a common goal.

Child Guidance. The panel on mental hygiene and child guidance clinics pointed to the school as next to the family in significance of its influence upon the child's development. "The school's failure to see the child as a total personality," it reported, "with a life apart from the classroom and with fundamental needs as an individual that transcend a desire to master the three R's, contributes to delinquency in many cases." The panel urged that a child-guidance clinic, properly staffed, should be an integral part of the school organization of all cities large enough to afford one. Elsewhere a general community clinic or a traveling clinic should be available to children needing such services. State commissioners of education and local school superintendents were asked to reexamine existing programs for the understanding and treatment of behavior disorders, to assure themselves of the adequacy of specialized personnel, such as psychologists, visiting teachers, attendance workers, and others charged with recognizing and treating maladjustment among pupils.

Institutional Treatment. The panel on institutional treatment gave special

attention to children and youth committed by court action to residential schools for delinquents. This group protested the stigma attached to such schools by most communities and urged that they be geared more closely into community life. Highly individualized treatment, special facilities for different types of children, a well-qualified and adequately paid staff, and educational experiences suited to the needs of every child were among factors emphasized. A closer affiliation with the public educational system of the State was recommended, through which the training school would receive advisory assistance from the State educational staff and would in turn, as an educational center, discharge appropriate responsibilities to the State. In other words, the child sent to a training school for juvenile delinquents should not be ostracized, but should still be considered a member of school and community life while receiving the specialized treatment he needs.

Recreation. The panel on recreation urged that recreational and youth leaders cooperate with teachers and other school personnel to make the school-community recreation program an effective preventive measure. Schools should become community centers, with out-of-school programs that will furnish recreational activities for young and old alike. Libraries should be accessible to all, with bookmobiles bringing to rural areas the recreational reading that many young people crave. More camps are needed that will bring children and youth in touch with the great out-of-doors and furnish educational experiences through leisure hours.

The panel's report stated: "The school is potentially in a position to furnish leaders and to provide facilities to serve many of youths' needs in their after-school hours, on Saturdays, and during vacation periods. However, the field is wide open for more and greater progress—both in developing year-round recreation activities within the school program and in extending the school's recreation services and influences as total community needs require."

Rural Aspects. While all the panels gave consideration to the needs of children and young people who live in rural areas, one special panel summarized the

findings in the various fields as they applied to rural youth. Every emphasis was placed upon the importance of seeing to it that rural youth have opportunity for constructive group activity, with the home, the church, and the school again identified as the major responsible agencies. As elsewhere, so in rural communities spiritual values come first in the prevention of delinquency. These every group concerned with rural youth must promote in every possible way.

Community Coordination. The panel on Community Coordination stressed again that delinquency is a problem for the whole community and not for any one agency within it. What can the community do as a whole? It can get the facts concerning juvenile delinquency, as it exists within its own borders; it can help the public to understand these facts; it can promote a balanced growth of services for children and youth; it can relate the problem of juvenile delinquency to other social problems which exist in the community; it can take action to correct the problems which contribute to juvenile delinquency; and it can focus attention on the neighborhood as the natural social area for all related services. To do these things every citizen and youth must participate in a planned program of action.

Origin and Development of the Conference

The National Conference for the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency had its inception when, in October 1945, Attorney General Clark became concerned with the problem of the approximately 1,600 juveniles under the control of the Department of Justice. Seeking advice from authorities associated with children, he appointed the National Advisory Panel to the Attorney General on Juvenile Delinquency Problems. This panel met in February 1946, and made definite recommendations for further action. One of these was that "the Attorney General call a larger and more representative conference in Washington, D. C., to consider and recommend a program of specific action in the various fields which

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EDUCATORS' BULLETIN BOARD

New Books and Pamphlets

Music Education

Lowell Mason, *"The Father of Singing Among the Children."* By Arthur Lowndes Rich. Chapel Hill, The University of North Carolina Press, 1946. 224 p. \$3.

Describes the work of Lowell Mason, who organized the first children's singing school in Boston, and traces his influence on the development of music teaching in the public schools of the United States. Includes a bibliography of Lowell Mason's writings and of other related sources.

Reading Conference

Claremont College Reading Conference, *Eleventh Yearbook 1946*. Sponsored by Claremont College and Alpha Iota Chapter of Pi Lambda Theta. Claremont, Calif., Claremont College Library, 1946. 200 p. \$2.50.

Gives the papers presented at the conference on the theme, "Types of Reading Implied by a Broad Concept of the Reading Process." Topics discussed include aural reading, visual reading, tactile or touch reading, social reading, physiological factors affecting the reading process, and curricular problems in reading.

Intergroup Relations

Improving Intergroup Relations in School and Community Life. A Study Conducted and Reported by the Subcommittee on In-Service Education of Teachers, Paul W. Harnly, chairman. The North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, 1946. 48 p. 25 cents, single copy. (Address: The Secretary, George W. Rosenlof, Lincoln, Neb.)

The study aims to analyze the origin of intergroup problems, to establish their relationships to the total school and community program, and to suggest ways and means of doing something about them. It outlines the implications for in-service education and emphasizes the development of in-service techniques which have transfer values to other situations.

World Goodwill

Learning World Goodwill in the Elementary School. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D. C., 1946. 366 p. illus. (The National Elementary Prin-

cipal, Vol. 26, No. 1, September 1946. 25th Yearbook) \$2.

Discusses the basic educational process of forming attitudes and the unique service of the elementary school in the process; presents first-hand reports on school activities, and suggests the scope of the service still to be rendered in building a better future in human relationships. Lists books, pamphlets, films, and recordings useful to the classroom teacher.

United Nations

Aids to Teaching About the United Nations. Office of Press and Radio Relations, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1946. 23 p. processed. 10 cents.

Presents a guide to the material on the United Nations. Aids are grouped under the three principal sources: (1) United Nations Secretariat; (2) U. S. Department of State; and (3) American Association for the United Nations. Lists more than 50 pamphlets, study guides, posters, and charts, available free of charge to teachers from these agencies; additional material from other sources is also listed.

One World in the Making, the United Nations. By William G. Carr. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1946. 100 p. illus. \$1.

Gives an explanation of the United Nations, its reasons for being, its charter, objectives, and machinery. Includes photographs, maps, charts, and a list of important references for further reading.

How to Do It Series

How to Make a Bulletin Board Effective. By Edwin M. Barton and George B. Robinson. National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 16th St., NW, Washington, D. C., 1945: 6 p. (How to Do It Series, No. 4) 10 cents, single copy.

Shows how a social studies bulletin board can become an important teaching aid with the expanding function of displaying all types of material to supplement class work. Other titles in the series are: *How to Use a Motion Picture*, *How to Use Local History*, and *How to Use a Textbook*. Intended for social studies teachers, elementary and secondary.

Wartime Schools

6,000 Kids From 46 States. Published by the Vanport City Schools, Portland 17, Ore., 1946. 100 p. illus. \$1.25.

Describes an adventure in public education at Vanport, Ore., where, within a year, 700 acres of swamp land became the living space

for 40,000 people who came to build ships for war. Reports how a new school system was set up and new schools built for the "6,000 kids from 46 States."

Recent Theses

These theses are on file in the Library of the U. S. Office of Education, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

Audio-Visual Aids

The Audio-Visual Program in the Newton Public Schools, by Norman H. Payne. Master's, 1946. Boston University. 125 p. ms.

Traces briefly the history of audio-visual aids in the Newton (Mass.) Public Schools. Outlines plans for the future growth and use of these aids, and shows the need for teacher training in this field.

The Development and Use of Audio-Visual Aids in the Training Program of the United States Armed Forces With Some Implications for Post-War Education, by Francis R. Millard. Master's, 1946. George Washington University. 74 p. ms.

Studies the use of models, objects, sand tables, training films, film strips, lantern slides, sound equipment, photographs, maps, charts, posters, cartoons, troop demonstrations, and illustrated material used in training men for the Army and Navy. Indicates ways in which the audio-visual aids can be used to advantage in postwar education.

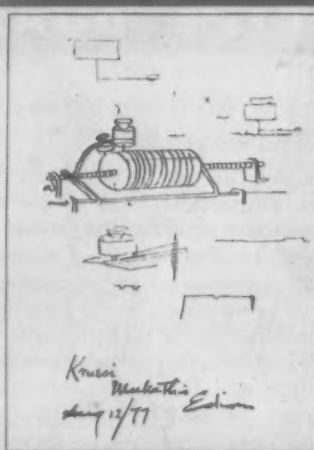
Development of an Educational Radio Series Using Original Verse of Pupils, by Mildred B. Rees. Master's, 1944. University of Cincinnati. 195 p. ms.

Describes scripts which were broadcast by several radio stations and which originated in the high schools of Cincinnati, Ohio; a private school in Youngstown, Ohio; and another in Rockford, Ill.

The Economy of Time in Industrial Training; An Experimental Study of the Use of Sound Films in the Training of Engine Lathe Operators, by Abram W. Vander Meer. Doctor's, 1945. University of Chicago. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 36: 65-90, February 1945. (Reprinted.)

Develops a technique for using sound films in the training of engine lathe operators, and attempts to determine whether such a technique would result in a saving of time in the teaching of 12 lathe skills. Indicates that it would be possible to shorten the training period by including motion pictures in the training of operators in the manner described in the experiment.

(Turn to page 18)



Edison's rough sketch of one of the early phonographs; America's first electric railroad, built by Edison; one of his early laboratories.

THE EDISON CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION

TEACHERS will observe, in one way or another, the Centennial of Edison's birth. Whatever form their efforts take, there is bound to be emphasis on Edison's life: his early experiences, his disciplined ambitions, and finally, of course, his achievements. And indeed the dramatic story of his life will lend itself to pictorial exhibits, classroom plays, radio presentation, library displays, and assembly programs.

But reviewing events in the life of a great scientist and enumerating his contributions to human welfare—these two efforts are not enough. They are interesting, yes; but they amount to a recording of skeleton half-truths. They do not tell the whole story.

The Heart of the Matter

The whole story of Edison's life, or for that matter the life of any scientist, is full of implications that have real meaning for youth studying science today. These implications, having to do with attitudes and

work methods, are what humanize our skeleton half-truths and give them personality. It is one thing to learn that Edison invented the phonograph. It is quite another to remind students of our indebtedness to him. (No matter if their juke-box is a startling variant.) It is still something else to realize what attitudes gave him the courage to stick through frustrations and set-backs; and what methods gave him the key to his answers. These implications are at the heart of the matter.

Scientist Searches for Explanations

Scientists' attitudes toward their work, then, their methods used in work—these may be interpreted in warmly human terms that contradict the cold notation of the term "scientific method." Students of science will see that the scientist is a curious and hopeful fellow. He is searching for explanations and he plans experiments, one after another, to

the bottom of his questions. He has a nimble imagination, but he must be honest in his experiments. He cannot jump to conclusions, he cannot afford to be tempted by wishful thinking, he cannot conclude his observations until all the facts are in. Since he respects his work, he must be as stubbornly patient about it as he is accurate. Actual, measurable facts are the only evidence he can tolerate, and they limit him. But they also support him, guide him, and eventually reward him.

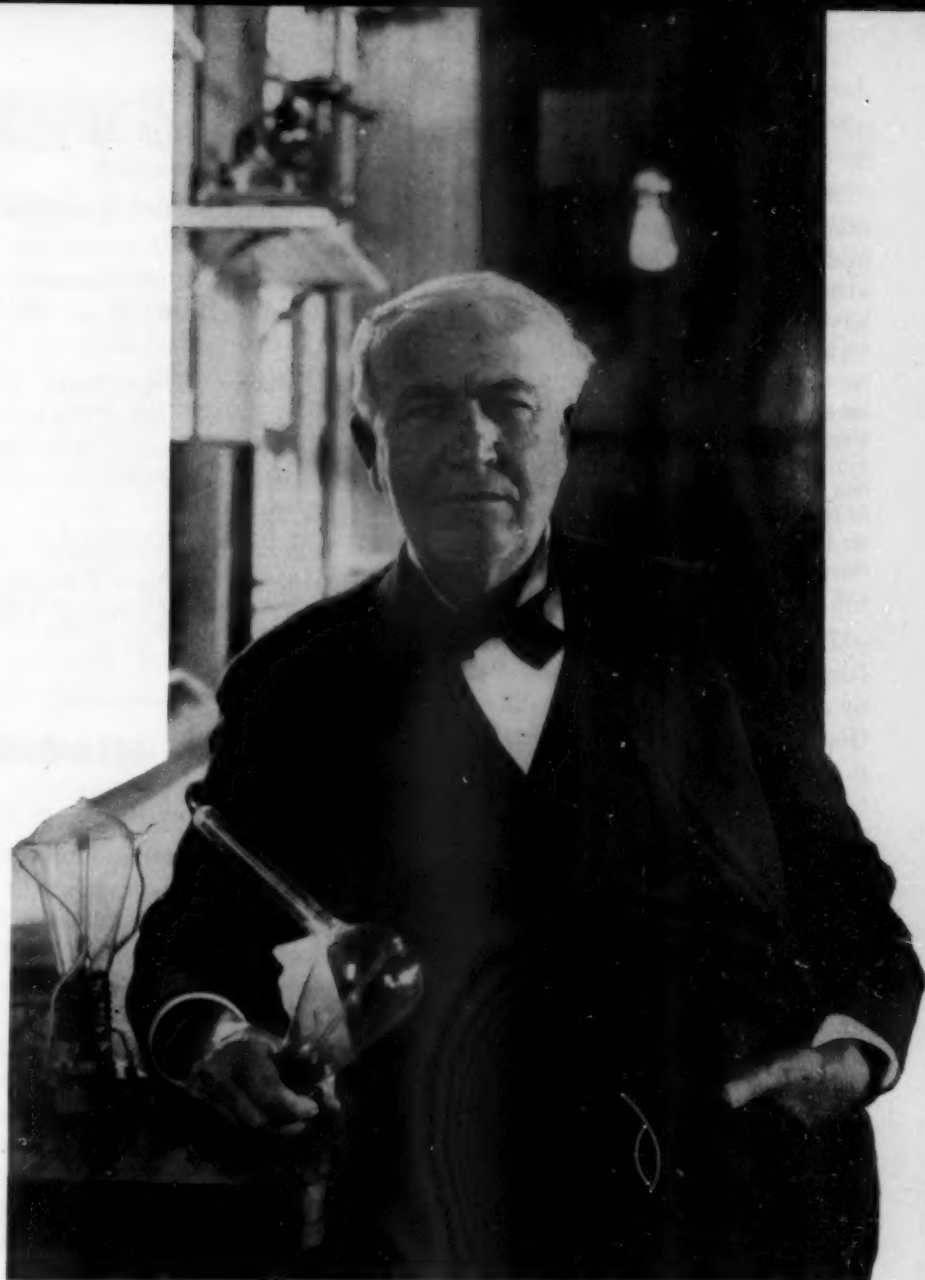
Studying Edison's Achievements

Students of science, and students of all other subjects, can learn by studying the achievements of Edison to try out for themselves such attitudes and methods as guided him. Teachers can help by getting across to their students the growing, working personality behind these achievements. The drama is here; it will be the more exciting for being told in full. And finally, it is a "natural" for real education of high and lasting value.



NOTE.—The Edison Centennial Committee, 40 West Fortieth St., New York 18, N. Y., has announced that posters depicting the achievements of Thomas A. Edison will be sent to secondary schools.

EDISON 1847-1947



Electronics age opened when Edison demonstrated in 1883 that heated filament in vacuum bulb emits electrons. Picture with models of first electric bulbs taken in 1912.



Edison with first phonograph. Photo made after demonstration in White House, 1878.



Edison demonstrating early motion picture projectors. Picture taken in 1905.

Recent Theses

(From page 15)

An Evaluation of the Effect of Illustrations on Comprehension in the Fifth and Sixth Grades, by Claire E. Richards. Master's, 1945. Boston University. 98 p. ms.

Describes an experiment in which four stories in the social studies field were issued in booklet form; in one set the first and third stories were illustrated and the second and fourth were not illustrated; and, in the second set, the second and fourth stories were illustrated and the others were not. Concludes that illustrations had little effect on the comprehension scores of pupils in the fifth and sixth grades.

The Problems Involved in the Administration of an Audio-Visual Program, by Joseph B. Johnson. Doctor's, 1946. George Washington University. 205 p. ms.

Outlines problems involved in finance, budget, organizations, acquisitions, operation of equipment, distribution, adaptation of classrooms, storage and maintenance, teacher training, correlation, selection, new areas of instruction, and public relations in the administration of the audio-visual program. Indicates that few programs meet all of the administrative problems adequately, but that many of them solve one or more of the problems considered.

Projected Visual Aids in Business Education, by Clifford D. Ettinger. Doctor's, 1945. New York University. 363 p. ms.

Attempts to determine the visual aids used in teaching business education; their value in teaching the subject; the present status of classroom use of visual aids in business education in the public high schools of New York City; and the organization and distribution of these aids. Concludes that projected visual aids have instructional value in the teaching of business subjects.

Courses of Study

These courses of study were recently received in the Office of Education Library. They are not available for loan or distribution by this Library.

Amarillo, Tex. Public Schools. *Fine Arts: A Tentative Course of Study in Art Appreciation for Junior and Senior High Schools*. 1946. 150 p. processed. (Curriculum Bulletin Supplement, No. 255).

Denver, Colo. Public Schools. *We'll Take the High Road. A Resource Unit for the Use of Teachers in Preparing*

Their Own Units on Aviation for Children in the Fifth and Sixth Grades. 1945. 53 p. processed.

Florida. State Department of Education. *A Brief Guide to Teaching Mathematics in the Secondary Schools*. Tallahassee, 1946. 60 p. (Bulletin No. 50).

Kentucky. Department of Education. *The Program of Vocational Agriculture in Kentucky*. Frankfort, 1945. *Educational Bulletin*, 13: 499-545, October 1945.

Wisconsin. Department of Public Instruction. *Driver Education Procedures*. Madison, Motor Vehicle Department, 1945. 20 p.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

(Concluded from p. 14)

touch on juvenile delinquency problems."

The conference that met on November 20-22 was the result. Recommendations made by the National Advisory Panel constituted the charter and program of the Conference. The technique of pre-conference panels was adopted, each panel to prepare a report recommending action by specific individuals and groups in each particular area of responsibility. The conference itself, totaling some 800 persons in attendance, then became a working conference, divided into the 15 discussion panels already indicated. Revisions were made in the preliminary reports as presented, and the final report of each panel was submitted in summary form at the concluding session of the Conference.

Plans for Follow-up

It was never the intention of those who planned the Conference that it should in itself represent a terminal effort. The action taken at the final session put into tangible form the plans made for further service. A resolution creating a Continuing Committee was adopted, such Committee to consist of the Executive Committee of the National Advisory Panel and the chairmen of the various panels of the Conference, with the vice-chairmen to serve as alternates. The functions of this Continuing Committee will be to edit the panel

reports, make plans for their printing and dissemination, explore the possibilities of having a permanent secretariat, plan for reassembling of the Conference on a national scale, and follow up the action of the Conference by encouraging State and community conferences of the same type. Special emphasis was placed upon the participation of young people themselves through the inclusion of their representatives on the Executive Committee and on the Continuing Committee.

The National Conference will thus make available to community groups a set of reports which will be useful in guiding discussion and suggesting action. "It is the responsibility now of every locality and every individual in every locality, having concern for young people, to carry the work on with the fullest degree of imagination and initiative. It has been emphasized and re-emphasized that the solution to the juvenile problem lies in the homes and schools and local institutions of this country. It is only by action in these areas that results can be achieved." *

Teen-Age Employment

TEEN-AGE employment has continued at a high level since the war ended, according to the annual report of the National Child Labor Committee recently issued under the title, "Child Labor—In the First Year After the War."

Exact figures for 1946 are not yet available, says the report, but estimates based on employment certificate and other figures indicate that approximately 2,000,000 young people, 14 to 18, are still employed full or part time—a million less than at the peak of wartime employment and a million more than were employed before the war.

That the decline in the employment of teen-agers has not been as rapid and spectacular as had been anticipated, can be accounted for largely by the fact that, so far, the level of employment generally has not declined. The curve of youth employment has always followed the curve of general employment.

* From "Tentative Draft of Introduction to Volume of Summaries of Reports of the National Conference for the Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency." (Mimeo.)

Activities in Elementary Science

by Glenn O. Blough, Specialist in Elementary Science

"WE LEARN by doing," is thoroughly lodged in the science teacher's mind, so when she plans her work in science in the grade school, she is determined to have plenty of activity going on. "Get those kids out of their seats," the professor of methods said in his course last summer, "give them something to do. Remember, they learn by doing."

That's fine. But *learn what?* That is the question science teachers have so frequently failed to ask themselves. Children color bird pictures, they make murals, they press flowers, they experiment, they keep notebooks, they write science "poems," they collect stuff, they do ninety-nine-and-one other things all in the name of activity. What is it that's active? Just hands and feet, or do activities involve the use of the thinking apparatus, too? They should. What, exactly do we want these activities to accomplish? What is their purpose in relation to the big aims for which we are striving in science? These questions are too often completely ignored or insufficiently considered.

Purposeful Activity

An activity, to be adequately purposeful, must in some definite manner contribute toward one or more of the following: A more complete understanding of an important science principle or generalization, a broader interest in and appreciation for science, a more scientific method of problem solving or a better social attitude. In addition it should be of such a nature as to seem worth while to the pupil. This factor we have too often overlooked. In our zeal to "get the show on the road," we have failed to spend time enough to show the learners how this activity can serve their present and/or future needs.

When children are genuinely concerned about a science problem, they attack it with much more energy and enthusiasm than is otherwise the case. When they can see where they are going and why they are going there, they are much more apt to arrive having accomplished something along the way. Hav-

ing been properly motivated then, a problem that is within the realm of understanding of the learner and of real interest to him can stimulate activity that will be full of purpose and vim.

This kind of activity can and should by all means involve some planning on the part of pupils. After they have set up a plan much cooperative work in the group is involved. The more voice pupils can have in the planning and carrying out the plan, the better. Likewise the more they can be involved in judging the results achieved, the better.

Evaluating Activities

Using the elements involved in this point of view as the units of a measuring stick, let us hold it up to some of the more commonly used activities. Experimenting is, of course, one of the learn-by-doing activities commonly considered as essential in teaching science in the elementary schools. Unfortunately experimenting as an activity is often poor. In fact it is often so poorly done as to be almost useless because it consists of having children read the experiment instructions from a book, following them like a recipe and then drawing sloppy conclusions. Children jump to conclusions like frogs unless they are checked again and again. Too few experiments, as now performed in many classrooms, involve any thinking at all on the part of the pupils.

Take for example this following case of an experiment observed in an elementary school. The teacher says, "Today we are going to do an experiment with sulphur and iron filings." She has arranged the material neatly on the science demonstration table. The children are spilling over with anticipation as they always are when there's an experiment in the offing. The teacher selects three pupils to perform the experiment, and gives them directions. They mix the two chemicals and try to separate them with a magnet. The magnet attracts the iron and not the sulphur. The teacher says "You see we have not made a chemical change because the two chemicals are still the same. Now, heat

them in the test tube." The pupils follow her directions. "Now test them with a magnet," she directs. The magnet does not attract the mass. "Now, you see we have made a chemical change because the characteristics of the two chemicals have changed. Do you see?" The entertained but bewildered children say, "Yes, Miss Brown." And Miss Brown says, "Now let's see what our books say." The children read the paragraphs describing the experiment and results. Obviously there has been no planning here to make the children think, no planning by the children, no real direction of their activity, no problem-solving methods were used, no application of experimental results. In fact it's almost a waste of sulphur!

Some General Guiding Principles

In order to make experimenting become a meaningful activity we need, then, some general guiding principles for planning experiments. The following are among the more important ones.

1. Experiments should be conducted in such a manner as to cause pupils to think. An experiment in which the teacher *tells* the pupils everything, obviously gives no food to nurture growing minds.

2. By all means, children should be conscious of the purpose for performing an experiment. It is often desirable to write the purpose on the board in a simple, direct form. Certainly the problems should be children's problems insofar as possible and should not anticipate the results already read from the book by the pupils. For example: The children arrive in school on a slippery winter morning. The janitor has scattered salt on the school steps to clear the ice. The children want to know what happens to the ice and why that happens. They decide to set up an experiment to discover the reason. Chances are they will not be easily satisfied with superficial performance. They get the point of why they are experimenting and are therefore more apt to press the performance to an ultimately satisfying conclusion.

3. Careful planning is essential to successful experimenting. Appropriate materials must be assembled (by the children if possible), a plan of procedure must be set up, the plan must then be accurately followed to insure that the results can be depended upon. Less "jumping the gun" and more "hey, wait a minute, let's take another look at this," should be the motto in grade-school science experiments

4. Insofar as possible, children themselves should perform the experiments. They may work as individuals or as groups depending on the type of experiments and the amount of material available. Experiments involving use of fire or other possible dangers or experiments of a complicated nature if used at all, should be performed by the teacher.

5. Many times, children themselves can originate experiments to answer their questions. These are often the most satisfactory from every point of view. Contrary to the belief of some teachers, experiments need not always be complicated, nor need they have been previously described in a science book.

6. Experiments should be performed carefully, and exactly according to the directions, either those from books or those originated by the class.

7. Pupils should learn the value of using a control when they perform an experiment so that their results will be more apt to be dependable. For example, children are attempting to discover whether or not leaves of plants give off water. They set up the usual experiment of covering a plant with a glass jar and shutting off the soil from contact with the air in the jar. The next morning droplets of water are found on the inside surface of the jar. The children immediately decide that they have discovered the answer to their problem. But how can they be sure that the water did not come out of the air in the jar? They can't. But suppose they assemble another set of apparatus exactly like the first—a plant pot, a glass jar, soil, etc., but without a plant. The jars are placed side by side and observed. This time if water appears on the inside surface of the jar with the plant in it and does not appear on the other jar's surface, the water must have come from the plant leaves. Such a procedure of controlled experimentation is essential if experiments are to assume their full meaning as activities for children.

8. Simple apparatus is more appropriate for use in experiments in the elementary school than complicated material. Intricate pieces of apparatus sometimes borrowed from high-school laboratories, often detracts from the real point of the experiment.

9. Pupils should exercise great caution in drawing conclusions from an experiment. They cannot prove anything from having performed an experiment once. They must hold their finding tentative until more evidence—either in the form of additional experiments performed themselves or from authentic books—has been found. Results should be accurately and completely stated and in some cases recorded in a brief carefully written paragraph. Pupils should

most certainly not generalize on insufficient experimental evidence.

10. As many applications to everyday life situations and problems as possible should be made from an experiment. This is a hard step, but it is one of the most important reasons for studying science in the first place. When an experiment has been performed, only the first step in its usefulness has been taken. For example, pupils want to see how painting can keep things from rusting. An experiment is set up involving a wet unpainted nail and a similar nail covered with a layer of paint. The experimenters note that in one case oxygen has united with the iron causing rust and that in the other there is no rust. Now in a real life situation how is this principle applied? in school? at home? on the way to school and elsewhere? The experiment was done to make the idea real. The applications must be made to see how important this idea is and how useful.

The teacher with the iron and sulphur would proceed quite differently if she followed these guidepoints. If she wanted to perform the experiment with her group she might begin: "We have been discussing the differences between chemical and physical changes. We have two elements here. Can anyone think of a way to use them to illustrate how a chemical change is different from a physical change?" The pupils make suggestions. If they are not successful with their ideas, the book may be used as a reference. After the sulphur and iron have been mixed and separated the teacher may say, "How do you know what kind of change this illustrates?" "How can you be sure you are right?" After the mixture is heated, she may ask, "How is this change different from the previous one?" "How can you be sure of your answer?" From this discussion the children may formulate their description of physical and chemical changes and then they may read to check their ideas. From this experiment, the teacher may proceed to apply this learning to practical situations in which we try to stop chemical change (painting iron to keep it from rusting) and where we use chemical change (souring of milk to make cheese).

Left to themselves, children are inveterate experimenters. The results may be greatly improved by following a few good-sense rules which involve motivation, thoughtful planning, and intelligent direction and application.

Considerations in Using Reading Material

Reading ranks high in the list of activities in science. In fact perhaps too high. Unfortunately some courses in science deteriorate into reading periods to the exclusion of all other activities. That is sad. Reading is one of the ways to learn science and as such deserves considerable thoughtful planning if it is to be an effective tool. The following considerations in using reading material are important.

1. Science classes are a logical spot for children to learn to differentiate between fact and fancy in their reading. That is, they should come to know that some books are written for pure enjoyment; others present facts which are used in gaining knowledge. They should learn to challenge the authenticity of the materials they read. They should learn that the date of copyright and the authorship are important in judging the authenticity of material. They should learn to exercise care in drawing such conclusions about material, i. e., that checking one fact with an authentic source does not necessarily indicate that the book is accurate. Finding an error on a printed page may be one of the most enlightening experiences a pupil can have for through this he may learn the valuable lesson that just because something appears in print does not necessarily mean that it is accurate.

2. Reading should be done with a definite purpose in mind, i. e., to check pupils' own conclusions, to find information, to find out how to perform experiments, to answer questions and solve problems.

3. A variety of sources of reading material on a given topic is generally desirable because through several sources, more information is obtained and varying points of view may become apparent.

4. It is often necessary and desirable for science pupils to do individual pieces of reading "research." Under such circumstances careful note taking is essential so that an accurate report may be given to the class. This is an important aspect of reading in science.

5. Selection of appropriate reading material is prerequisite to success in reading activity. This is largely the responsibility of the teacher; but the help of the children is also desirable. Material which is too difficult, or which is too easy, or which is inappropriate because it does not answer the children's questions is discouraging when offered to children.

Reading is a learning tool of which all science teachers should be aware.

Developing skill in reading and learning in science can go hand in hand. But reading is only one of the ways to learn science. To overemphasize its use is to ignore some of the essential purposes for teaching science.

Accurate and Thorough Observations

Observing is another essential activity in all science teaching and pupils should grow in their ability to observe more accurately and thoroughly. Through the use of their senses children can come to experience many things. Feeling the texture of material, or the heat from an electric wire, seeing cloud formations, seeing the changes in lengths of shadows, listening to birds, and many other similar activities are an important part of their science work. They make the learning more vivid. List the verbs of action and you have a key to the many opportunities for observing: Touch, lift, smell, weigh, taste, measure, watch, find, etc.

Children will observe to determine the characteristics of things, to see the changes in growing things, to learn the habits of animals and to see the results of experiments, but, and this is an important word in this case, they must learn to do so with accuracy and to report their observations carefully enough to be reliable. A scientist has a deep respect for facts.

Excursions Good or Bad

Making excursions to solve problems and to add information and appreciation, form an important part of an activity program in elementary science. Trips to the park, the zoo, the telephone exchange, the sawmill, the airport, the water purification plant and to other similar places within reach are commonly made by teachers and pupils. These can result in a headache for the teacher, a field day for the children and bad public relations for the school because of the "monkeyshines" of poorly directed children unless the trip is well planned.

Children should make such excursions with definite purposes in mind. They should go to answer questions that are best settled by first-hand observation of the kind trips furnish. By all means, they should be very much aware of the purpose for the trip and the guide

should know in advance what the children want to see and learn and the teacher should make a before-hand trip to see the place for herself and to talk with the guide. She should then be alert to assist the guide in keeping the group together, making sure that there is plenty of opportunity to see and to ask questions. Excursions should be made an integral part of a study under consideration and not just for something to do. Field trips can be of inestimable value to a science program or they can be and sometimes are useless boondoggling. It is probably safe to say that more time should be spent getting ready for an excursion, and again in gathering deductions from it, than on the actual excursion itself.

Values in Collecting

Collecting is another activity that breaks out all over elementary schools. Children collect everything from feathers to fossils, and any number of things can inspire the urge to make a collection. Sometimes collections made by individuals in a class create an interest in a subject in the entire group. This frequently happens when children bring collections of insects, rocks, or shells to school. Sometimes the study of a subject promotes collection-making on the part of a whole class.

A collection can be used to inspire careful observation in order to identify and classify the items. The collection can serve as useful illustrating material and may be made part of a school museum to be used school-wide by science classes. Collecting just for the fun of it is often satisfying to many children but making a collection serve a purpose increases obviously the value of the activity.

Make Constructing Useful

Constructing things has become a common practice in many elementary schools and some of it seems a little on the foolish side. We've all seen book ends—50 alike—patiently waiting to be painted. Again it's the purpose that makes the activity take on sense. If a thing needs to be made to serve a useful purpose the activity of constructing appears legitimate. Animal cages, bird houses, feeding stations and the like are in this class. If the activity helps to

promote understanding of a science principle the purpose too is obviously valid. Constructing a miniature solar system to see relative sizes of its members, building weather instruments to get an idea of their sizes and how they work, making balancing toys to experience principles of physics, making an electric questioner to learn about complete and incomplete circuits are examples of construction activities that have real use in achieving the purposes for teaching science.

Culminating Activities and Evaluation

Culminating activities of various kinds are often used at the close of a unit of study in science, and again if the activities are purposeful, they can serve the child well. Giving plays, assembly programs, making exhibits, charts, booklets and countless other schemes to review the learnings, skills, and appreciations are good when sensibly pursued. Often they furnish a real need for the skills in reading, writing, spelling, art, arithmetic, and other subjects. The group planning which must accompany these culminating activities is no small part of the important contribution which they can make to child growth.

Evaluating is one of the essential elements so often neglected in any of these described activities. The children, sitting down with the teacher to talk over the effectiveness of an activity can grow in ability to look critically at a situation. If young Tom says, "I think our program for the sixth grade wasn't very good. Some of us were not prepared and the whole thing needs to be arranged better," this is a healthy sign, or if Susan says, "Our committee picked out something to do that was too hard. I think we need a meeting to plan better," this too has hearty implications. When children are helped to set up criteria for judging their work, then use them to measure accomplishment, any activity is bound to yield greater returns.

Activity? Yes, by all means, but not just for the sake of letting off excess steam and filling up an afternoon, but because it is a way to make ideas live, make them more thoroughly understood and provide opportunity for purposeful work together.

Social Legislation Concerned With Management and Labor Relations

by C. E. Rakestraw, Consultant,
Employee-Employer Relations,

WITH THE GRADUAL evolution of the Nation's social and economic pattern reflected in our total educational scheme, social legislation and its effect on management and labor relations should be of interest to educators. Such legislation has, either directly or indirectly, affected the amount and kind of education, school attendance, and the age at which youth may leave school for employment. This article, therefore, has been written to provide some brief factual information on the subject.

About the time of the American Revolution, power was being applied to machines used in the manufacturing processes in England. Also better ways were found to smelt iron and to transport goods. These changes and many others connected with them revolutionized ways of living. The most important changes were the invention of machines to take the place of hand tools, the use of water, steam, and electric power, and the adoption of the factory system. The growth of the factory system brought about widespread changes in the lives of workers. Its development brought about a need for larger and better systems of transportation. With this development came an increase in the population and growth of cities.

In England, the Government had accepted the doctrine that it should keep its hands off business. Factory owners set their own working conditions as they pleased. Then grave problems arose such as working hours, wages, unemployment, accidents, employment of women and children, and housing conditions. Parliament in 1802 passed a law regulating the daily work of apprentices to 12 hours and requiring that they be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. In 1833 other laws were extended to protect all children and women workers. As factories developed, the personal-relationship gap between the employer and the employee

widened; workers began to organize and to fight for better working conditions and for educational opportunities and training for their children.

In the United States, through the efforts of organized labor and its friends, through a sympathetic public and administration, many pieces of social legislation designed to better the life of working people and to bring about improved relations between industry and labor have been placed on the statute books. The following are examples of Federal acts which over the years, have been passed by the Congress of the United States and which have affected industry and worker relations. These are classified under three general headings: Education, working conditions, and living conditions.

Education:

Organized labor has since its inception given serious consideration to the development of our system of public schools. Records of the earliest conventions reflect this attitude. Many resolutions were adopted and various committees and commissions were formed to seek legislation which would provide equal educational opportunities for all children. It advocated and helped win the fight for free public education including free textbooks in many States. The educational aspect of the labor movement is an important one since it is recognized that in order to improve living standards and working conditions of the working people they must have a concept of and be able to participate in the political, social, and economic aspects of our democracy. Labor groups have been especially interested in the following Federal acts.

12 Stat. 503, July 2, 1862 (Morrill Act)—An act donating public lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanical arts.

Public No. 242, March 4, 1907 (Nelson Amendment)—An act providing for the more complete endowment and maintenance of land-grant colleges.

Public No. 95, May 8, 1914—An act to provide for cooperative agricultural extension work between the agricultural colleges of the several States receiving the benefit of an act of Congress approved July 2, 1862, and of acts supplementary thereto and the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Public No. 347, February 23, 1917—An act to provide for the promotion of vocational education; to provide for cooperation with the States in the promotion of such education in agriculture and the trades and industries; to provide for the cooperation with the States in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects and to appropriate monies and regulate its expenditures.

Public, No. 236, June 2, 1920—An act to provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment.

Public, No. 182, June 29, 1935—An act providing for research into basic laws and principles relating to agriculture, further development of cooperative agricultural extension work, and more complete endowment and support of land-grant colleges.

Working Conditions:

Under this classification are listed some 37 laws. These have been selected from among much labor legislation and arranged chronologically, from 1888 to 1943. The list does not represent an exhaustive study of or search for such labor legislation. Since 1943 there have been other acts which have a bearing on management and labor relations, such as the Smith-Connally Act. It will be noted that the legislation reflects changes in labor and management relations.

Public, No. 304, October 1, 1888—An act to create boards of arbitration or commissions for settling controversies and differences between railroad corporations and other common carriers engaged in interstate and territorial transportation of property or passengers and their employees.

Public, No. 193, August 1, 1892 (Eight-Hour Law)—An act relating to the limitation of the hours of daily service of laborers and mechanics employed upon the public works of the

United States and of the District of Columbia.

Public, No. 115, June 1, 1898 (Erdman Act)—An act concerning carriers engaged in interstate commerce and their employees.

Public, No. 219, June 11, 1906—An act relating to liability of common carriers in the District of Columbia and territories and common carriers engaged in commerce between the States and between the States and foreign nations to their employees.

Public, No. 274, March 1907—An act to promote the safety of employees and travelers upon railroads by limiting the hours of service of employees thereon. (NOTE.—Prohibits more than 16 hours of continuous duty.)

Public No. 100, April 22, 1908—An act relating to the liability of common carriers by railroad to their employees in certain cases.

Public No. 176, May 30, 1908—An act granting to certain employees of the United States the right to receive from it compensation for injuries sustained in the course of their employment.

Public Law No. 479, March 1911—Prohibits construction of naval vessels and machinery for such vessels by any person, firm or corporation which has not established an 8-hour workday for all employees.

Public No. 199, June 1912—An act limiting the hours of daily service of laborers and mechanics employed upon work done for the United States, or for any Territory, or for the District of Columbia, and for other purposes.

Public Law No. 336, extract from, August 1912—Provides that on or after March 4, 1913, letter carriers in the City Delivery Service and clerks in first- and second-class post offices shall be required to work not more than 8 hours a day.

Public Law No. 290, extract from, Naval appropriation law, approved August 1912—Makes provision in all contracts authorized under this act limiting hours of daily service of laborers and mechanics employed on work done for the United States.

Public No. 408, March 1913—An act relating to the limitation of the hours of daily service of laborers and mechanics employed upon a public work of the United States and of the District of Columbia and of all persons employed

in constructing, maintaining or improving a river or harbor of the United States and of the District of Columbia.

Public No. 6, July 15, 1913 (Newlands Act)—An act providing mediation, conciliation, and arbitration in controversies between certain employers and their employees (Common carrier).

Public No. 60, February 24, 1914—An act to regulate the hours of employment and safeguard the health of females employed in the District of Columbia.

Public No. 252, September 5, 1916—An act to establish an 8-hour day for employees of carriers engaged in interstate and foreign commerce, and for other purposes.

Public No. 267, September 7, 1916—An act to provide compensation for employees of the United States suffering injuries while in the performance of their duties and for other purposes.

Public No. 257, May 20, 1926 (Railway Labor Act)—An act to provide for the prompt disposition of disputes between carriers and their employees and for other purposes.

Public No. 215, September 19, 1918—An act to protect the lives and health and morals of women and minor workers in the District of Columbia and to establish a minimum wage board, and define its powers and duties, and to provide for the fixing of minimum wages for such workers, and for other purposes.

Public No. 152, February 28, 1920, extract from (relinquishment of Federal control of railroads)—Title 111, Disputes between carriers and their employees and subordinate officials.

Public No. 803, March 4, 1927—An act to provide compensation for disability or death resulting from injury to employees in certain maritime employments, and for other purposes.

Public No. 618, May 29, 1928—An act to regulate the employment of minors within the District of Columbia.

Public No. 537, July 7, 1930—An act to amend section 4 of the act entitled "An act to create a Department of Labor," approved March 4, 1913.

Public No. 798, March 1931—An act relating to the rate of wages for laborers and mechanics employed on public buildings of the United States and the District of Columbia by contractors and subcontractors and for other purposes.

Public No. 306, July 22, 1932—An act

to repeal an act entitled "An act to legalize the incorporation of National Trades Unions," approved June 29, 1886.

Public No. 30, June 6, 1933—An act to provide for the establishment of a national employment system and for cooperation with the States in the promotion of such systems, and for other purposes.

Public No. 67, June 16, 1933—Collective bargaining by labor and the right of employees to organize under NRA codes.

Public No. 324, June 13, 1934—An act to effectuate the purpose of certain statutes concerning rates of pay for labor, by making it unlawful to prevent anyone from receiving the compensation contracted for thereunder and for other purposes. (NOTE.—On public building or work financed in whole or in part by Federal loans or grants.)

Public No. 442, June 21, 1934—An act to amend the Railway Labor Act approved May 20, 1926, and to provide for the prompt disposition of disputes between carriers and their employees.

Public No. 198, July 5, 1935 (National Labor Relations Act)—An act to diminish the causes of labor disputes burdening or obstructing interstate and foreign commerce, to create a National Labor Relations Board, and for other purposes.

Public No. 776, June 24, 1936—An act making it a felony to transport in interstate or foreign commerce persons to be employed to obstruct or interfere with the right of peaceful picketing during labor controversies.

Public No. 215, July 24, 1935—An act to prohibit the interstate transportation of prison-made products in certain cases.

Public No. 851, October 14, 1940—An act to make unlawful the transportation of of convict-made goods in interstate commerce, and for other purposes.

Public No. 403, August 30, 1935—To amend the act approved March 3, 1931 relating to the rate of wages for laborers and mechanics employed by contractors and subcontractors on public buildings. (NOTE.—Amends to read "that the advertised specifications for every contract in excess of \$2,000.00 * * *.)

Public No. 629, May 28, 1936—An act to advance a program of national safety and accident prevention.

Public No. 58, August 12, 1937—Joint resolution granting consent of Congress to the minimum-wage compact ratified by the Legislatures of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island.

Public No. 308, August 16, 1937—An act to enable the Department of Labor to formulate and promote the furtherance of labor standards necessary to safeguard the welfare of apprentices and to cooperate with the States in the promotion of such standards.

Public No. 718, June 25, 1938 (Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938)—An act to provide for the establishment of fair labor standards in employments in and affecting interstate commerce, and for other purposes.

Public No. 779, June 29, 1938—An act to prohibit the transportation of certain persons in interstate or foreign commerce during labor controversies, and for other purposes.

Public No. 382, August 11, 1939—An act to amend the employers' liability act.

Public No. 784, December 2, 1942—An act to provide benefits for the injury, disability, death, or enemy detention of employees of contractors with the United States, and for other purposes.

Public Law 89, June 25, 1943 (War Labor Disputes Act)—An act relating to the use and operation by the United States of certain plants, mines, and facilities in the prosecution of the war, and preventing strikes, lock-outs, and stoppage of production, and for other purposes.

Living Conditions:

Along with organized labor's effort in securing better education and working conditions, progress has been made in the direction of living conditions. This group together with other organizations has been instrumental in securing Federal and State legislation as well as local ordinances pertinent to housing, health, sanitation, and other phases of living conditions. National legislation, such as the following, has been enacted.

Public No. 616, February 10, 1931—An act to provide for the advance planning and regulated construction of public works, for the stabilization of industry, and for aiding in the prevention

of unemployment during periods of business depression.

Public No. 271, August 14, 1935 (Social Security Act)—An act to provide for the general welfare by establishing a system of Federal old-age benefits, and by enabling the several States to make more adequate provision for aged persons, blind persons, dependent and crippled children, maternal and child welfare, public health, and the administration of their unemployment compensation laws; to establish a Social Security Board; to raise revenue; and for other purposes.

In concluding this article, I should like to offer the following general statements for consideration and perhaps for democratic discussion—both pro and con.

1. Working conditions, including wages, are no longer determined by management alone. They are a subject for negotiation between management and labor groups. In the earlier days, as has been pointed out, such matters were to a large extent between a single employer and his employees and usually limited to a single craft. Gradually, however, working conditions have come to be negotiated on an industry-wide basis. At present when labor and management cannot agree, working conditions become a subject for negotiation among management, labor, and the Government.

2. The principle that the welfare of workers is a concern of the whole Nation is now recognized. There are Federal and State laws, as well as local ordinances, which are designed to protect the health and welfare of workers and their dependents. Such legislation includes safety, in its broadest sense, inspection of working conditions by Federal and State authorities, social security, and retirement plans.

3. Over a period of years the rank and file of workers have become better educated and have a better understanding of their rights and privileges as citizens and of the techniques in negotiating with management. This condition has been a factor in two directions: (1) that of securing improved working conditions and (2) that of assisting management in improving and the furthering technological development of industry. The complicated machinery and

production methods in use today could not have been developed without technically trained workers.

4. Certain social legislation which has been enacted has brought about more and more Government regulation which directly and indirectly affects both management and labor. This has necessitated a corresponding increase of work on the part of Government in that special boards, commissions, and committees are necessary to carry out the provisions of such legislation; for example, collection of taxes, management and labor collective bargaining elections, advisory committees, and hearings.

5. The protection of labor organizations through Federal legislation has contributed to their growth. On the other hand such protection is bringing labor and management relations to the point where responsibility of both parties is demanded more and more.

6. It is generally agreed that sound social legislation raises the standards of living for all people; makes education available to anyone, rich and poor alike; provides minimum wage patterns; and sets standards for industries not directly affected by the laws. The great task facing the Nation today is maintaining the balance between fair wages for all workers, organized and unorganized, and the cost of living. In a democratic nation such as ours workers and the public in general will not tolerate for long conditions which permit a minority to profit through the exploitation of labor.

7. Management and labor representatives participate in the betterment of conditions for the masses through serving on an equal basis on advisory boards and commissions. Also represented on many of these boards are representatives from the public. Through such procedures, the combined philosophies of labor, management, and the public in the field of industrial relations have been to a certain extent joined.

8. Through such developments we may expect more and more social legislation to be enacted which will benefit all people. The rights of labor and management will be equally protected. In other words, we can not have social legislation that has been enacted for the benefit of any special group or which is passed for the selfish interest of such groups.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Duties and Responsibilities of State Directors of Health and Physical Education

THE FOLLOWING summary is based upon information collected over a period of several months, from State directors of health and physical education relative to the nature, educational scope, and purpose of their respective state programs. The inquiry dealt with five phases of the school program, namely, health service, health instruction, safety education, physical education and other official duties.

Twenty-two States were requested to send data. The States replying were scattered from coast to coast giving a fair geographical sampling. Those reporting were: Alabama, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Texas, Utah, and Virginia.

Health Service

Health service is usually rendered the schools by special personnel including school physician, school dentist, school nurse and, in some cases, social workers. Eighty-eight percent of the State directors reported that they have responsibility for the health service program. One State reported no responsibility. Fifteen States reported that they do not have absolute authority over this program. One State reported an advisory relationship. Ten States reported a co-operative arrangement between their department and the health department or the medical profession for health service. Four States have no arrangement.

The records taken by the health service staff are available to all teachers in the schools of ten States. They are not available in two and are listed as "optional" by one State.

The directors were asked to list the duties they now have in connection with the health service program. The following duties were listed:

1. Coordinate the health service program and physical education.

2. Approve and cooperate with the program in the schools.
3. Set health service standards.
4. Act in an advisory capacity.
5. Handle publicity.
6. Assist in securing personnel.
7. Perform duties of organization and supervision.
8. Cooperate with State board of health and State nursing services.

Eleven States reported requirements for health service staff members. Four States reported none. The staff members required to meet these qualifications were nurses in most States and in all States there are registration requirements for physicians and dentists.

Six directors reported that they assisted in the setting up of these requirements. Five reported that they did not assist. The other States made no statements.

Ten States reported periodical health examinations. Two States listed them as optional. Eight States have yearly examinations. The States were asked to report on arrangements other than those asked for concerning health examinations. They listed the following:

1. Examination of athletes only.
2. Required by law.
3. Required every four years.
4. Requirements set by the State Board of Health.
5. Local requirements only.
6. Required annually but given only every three years in reality.
7. All students participating in physical activity classes are examined.
8. Examinations for employment only.
9. Handled by local jurisdiction.
10. Cities handle examination in some cases.

Health Instruction

State directors in fifteen States reported administrative responsibility for health instruction; one State reported no such responsibility. Sixteen States reported that secondary health instruction is partially or wholly done by

physical education instructors. One State did not report.

Five States reported that the health instruction is integrated with physical education. Eleven States reported a dual arrangement with some instruction done separately and some integrated with physical education. When the teaching is done by teachers other than physical education teachers, twelve States reported control over the program, and four States reported no control.

Fifteen directors are in charge of the course-of-study construction for health courses. One State director reported that he has no such responsibility.

Eleven directors have "some" authority over teacher-training institutions in the setting up of teacher-training requirements. Four reported no authority over teacher-training institutions.

Other duties listed as official are:

1. Assistance in health projects.
2. Distribution of publicity and teaching aids.
3. Provision for health education.
4. Advice regarding nurse in health education program.
5. Speaking and distribution of teaching aids.
6. Control of hygiene of environment.

Safety Education

Five State directors have charge of the school safety education programs. Eleven do not have charge, and one acts in an advisory capacity. The State directors having charge also assist in safety textbook adoptions. Three State directors have responsibility for the course of study in safety although they are not in charge of the program. Eight have no responsibility for the course of study.

The question was asked "If safety is not a part of your official duties, do you think that it should be?" Nine replied "yes," three "no," and one "not sure." Then the question was asked "If it is a part of your official duties, do you think it should be?" Twelve replied "yes." Ten stated that they were asked to serve as members of a State safety committee with members of other State departments. Thirteen States reported that their safety education was general

safety; one State reported safety instruction on traffic only.

To determine the types of safety taught, each director was asked to list the phases of safety taught in his particular State. Thirteen listed traffic; 12 listed precaution against communicable disease; 8, education covering so-called hereditary diseases; 9, disease growing out of poor health habits; 11, eating hazards; 15, fire hazards; 13, home hazards; 14, water hazards; 15, play hazards; and 15, first aid. One State indicated that safety education was limited to the high school level.

Physical Education

Fourteen States have placed "absolute control" of the physical education program in the hands of the director. In three States the directors do not have "absolute control." The directors were asked to list any who have "some" control if they did not have "absolute control." The following were listed as having "some" control: athletic associations, State boards of education, local boards of education, and advisory groups.

In fifteen States the State director is responsible for the course of study construction and revision. In two States this is handled in some other way.

One director stated that he has no authority over the teacher training institutions in this field; 12 reported "some authority"; 2 have "absolute authority"; and 1 "cooperates" with them.

The teacher-training standards that the schools must meet are set by the State directors of thirteen States. In 3 States they do not set up standards; in 2 States they assist.

The majority of State directors have close connections with the professional physical education associations of their States. Some have a cooperative arrangement; some are members of the executive committee; some are advisers and one director was a "member only."

In response to an inquiry regarding the furnishing of bulletins or pamphlets to teachers, 17 departments supply these materials; one stated "indirectly," as all publications were sent to the principal or superintendent.

The State directors of 13 States have full responsibility for the physical education curriculum in their States; 3 do

not have full responsibility; 7 indicated that superintendents and principals shared in the responsibility.

Athletics

Fourteen States have an interscholastic athletic association; 2 do not have; 1 director did not reply. Nine State directors have some connection with their association; 6 have no connections.

The responsibility for the athletics program in the different States lies with the athletic association, the high school principals, the "committee on physical education and recreation," an executive committee, local board of education, State high school commissioner of athletics or a board of control.

Two State directors reported that they are "officially" concerned with athletics only during school hours; 6 are "officially" concerned at all times; 8 are not "officially" concerned; 1 answered "yes and no."

Other Official Duties

Some of the official duties listed are approval of gymnasium plans and equipment, and promotion of school health and recreation.

Other official duties included issuance of "News Letter," "supplementary materials," "guide and direct health education," "approval of gymnasium plans," "school bus approval," "responsibility for balanced lunches," "supervision of nurses," "supervision of recreation," "health supervision," and membership on the "State parent-teacher health committees."

In General

The majority of States have laws or regulations requiring health service. Less than 50 percent of the States have school health examinations and these seem to be rather irregular or are left up to the local authorities. There appear to be several other departments, agencies, or organizations responsible for phases of this program.

Health instruction fares better. All States have some health instruction, and many have courses of study. Teacher-training institutions are making some efforts to train teachers for health instruction and State directors are assisting by the distribution of teaching aids and by the sponsoring of health projects.

There seems to be a general effort to

provide safety education. This varies from traffic safety to a complete program of general safety education.

Probably the most complete program is that of physical education. All phases of this program seem to be under the control of the State directors with the exception of inter-school athletics. Even this is partially under the control of many directors. The majority of directors have indicated that their duties involve publication of bulletins, course of study construction, advising and supervising health and physical education programs, acting on committees, and, in general, serving as promotional directors of the general program.

Health and Safety Education

Health and safety of our people have, in recent years, come to be regarded as one of our most valuable national resources. The efforts of the Nation are today centered in a program of life conservation. The responsibility of the schools in this program is of major importance. No other agency is so well equipped to deal with the problem.

The aim of *health instruction* is to assist in the development of a strong people with desirable habits, wholesome attitudes, and adequate knowledge relating to personal, community, and racial health. *Safety instruction* aims to provide opportunities for pupils, to acquire habits, attitudes, skills, and knowledge essential to a life free from unnecessary hazards and accidents. Similarity of these aims indicates that health and safety have the same basic factors and should be considered as two phases of the same program.

From the school viewpoint, instruction in health and safety is not new, but emphasis has been placed upon preventive measures. Rules and regulations have been stressed. With changes in educational philosophy, health and safety education have assumed a new meaning. Now we are less interested in a regulated regimen and more interested in the development of the whole student. We teach those things that assure adjustment to the social life of which each of us is a part. We teach the child to approach life with insight and understanding rather than with fear or quaking.

The general aims of health and safety instruction are definitely a part of the objectives of all education. A health and safety program must furnish a school plant and environment sanitary and free from unnecessary hazards. It must provide pupils with a background of health and safety experiences and information and help them to develop habits and attitudes which lead to intelligent self-direction in living.

Every good school program of health and safety has at least two parts. One is instruction and the other is service or supervision. Both require the administrator and teachers to assume certain responsibilities. These can be stated in the form of aims and objectives as follows:

1. School health and safety service.
 - a. To control the school building and environment so as to protect and promote the health and safety of all persons concerned.
 - b. Through health measures and through the elimination of hazards, to insure a school population physically, mentally, and emotionally able to receive and use the instruction given.
2. Instruction in health and safety.
 - a. To promote an intelligent attitude toward health and adventure, and a freedom from conditions which restrict a normal enjoyment of life.
 - b. To influence the conduct of the student in matters of personal and community health and safety, so as to produce the greatest degree of compatibility within the social group.
 - c. To influence parents and other adults to better habits and attitudes, through the health and safety programs for children, so that the school may become an effective agency for the promotion of health and safety in the family and community.
 - d. To influence future generations through the conduct of the individual, so as to insure the conservation of the best in man.

To achieve the aims a thorough knowledge of the functioning and the care of the human body should be taught. Understanding of the problems of health and safety in the home is needed. More accidents and illness oc-

cur from faulty habits and practices in the home than from any other part of our environment.

Instruction in activities and skills to assure recreational health and safety is needed. Reports from schools and the National Safety Council indicate that the accident rate is higher for recreational activities than for any other group of activities.

The need for understanding of the problems of occupational health and safety is obvious. Good health, proper habits, attitudes and skills for transportation health and safety are important.

Although the schools have a basic responsibility for health and safety instruction, the entire responsibility is not theirs. In fact, the school program will not be successful unless the parents understand and cooperate with the school. Adult education is essential to secure parent participation. This cooperation and understanding should also be supplemented by law enforcement and by engineering. This means that the entire community must be eternally vigilant and all groups must unite to control the ever-present dangers to health and safety.

Citizens' Federal Committee Plans Reports on Crisis in Teaching Profession

The Citizens' Federal Committee on Education, which acts in an advisory relation to the U. S. Office of Education, is sponsoring a series of reports to the Nation on the critical condition of the teaching profession. On November 1, 1946, at the conclusion of the second semiannual meeting of the Committee, Chairman Thomas C. Boushall, who is also chairman of the Education Committee of the U. S. Chamber of Commerce, said that the present crisis affecting the teaching profession "is of such gravity as to threaten the future of the American way of life.

"The mass exodus in recent years of hundreds of thousands away from the teaching profession," continued Chairman Boushall, "is understandable because of the completely inadequate teacher salaries, the lack of public esteem, and the lack of other factors that make for job satisfaction. Only vigorous and statesmanlike action on a scale commensurate with the urgent need, can avert a serious national tragedy."

In opening the second conference of the Committee, Commissioner Studebaker declared, "Never have we witnessed a deeper concern among people generally for education and a wider recognition of its importance to our future destiny." He pointed

out that the Citizens' Federal Committee, as the first national educational body of laymen, representing wide interests of labor, business, agriculture, manufacturing, homemakers, professions, veterans' groups, religious groups, and Negro groups, "should have far-reaching influence on American life and education."

Dr. Kathryn McHale, General Director of the American Association of University Women and Vice Chairman of the Citizens' Federal Committee, is chairman of the subcommittee that has been at work on presenting the reports to the Nation. Other members of this subcommittee include: Walter D. Fuller, President, The Curtis Publishing Co., representing manufacturing; A. S. Goss, Master, National Grange, representing agriculture; the Very Reverend Msgr. Frederick G. Hochwalt, Director, Department of Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference, representing religious groups; Walter G. Ingalls, American Legion, representing veterans; Mathew Woll, Chairman, Committee on Education, American Federation of Labor, representing labor.

The next meeting of the Citizens' Federal Committee will be held on March 17, 1947. At this time the Committee will consider pending Federal legislation on education.

LIBRARY SERVICES

Public Library—People's University

RECOGNIZING that education is a continuous process through life, not terminated at the grammar school, high school, or college level, the director of the Library Division, Minnesota Department of Education observes in his unpublished report 1945-46: "It is here where the free public library emerges as a potential agency for informal education on the adult level." He points to the growth of correspondence schools, extension courses, forums, film exchanges, and town meetings of the air as evidence of a popular desire to understand better "things imperfectly apprehended earlier in life."

Since those who continue self-education after school days have ended must commonly do so through voluntary reading and study, the director continues: "For the overwhelming number of people this means the public library. As the university of all the people . . . the municipal and county public library becomes a social imperative in the American educational pattern."

Story Hour, WFAS

One of the outstanding educational broadcasts of radio station WFAS at White Plains, N. Y., is the story-telling program entitled "Bag O'Tales," according to a recent issue of *Bulletin to the Schools*, an official publication of the University of the State of New York. Now in its eighth year, this radio program has been presented under the auspices of the Westchester Library Association to acquaint children and their parents with worthwhile stories for boys and girls and to inform them that these may be borrowed from school or public libraries.

Although most of the story-tellers are children's librarians, the bulletin states that others are elementary school teachers, guest authors, scout leaders, and members of parent-teacher groups. "Bag O'Tales" has been widely publicized in local newspapers, and programs are commonly sent out in advance to a considerable mailing list of school libraries, institutions, and others. Li-

braries in the Westchester area, with radios in their juvenile departments, accommodate listening groups, and children have formed clubs to listen to this program at their homes. Occasionally, children's groups have been admitted to the studio to witness the broadcasts of "Bag O'Tales."

Books and Current Events

"The Library Hour," a weekly lecture series sponsored for a third year by the campus Librarians' Association, is listed among the public services of the University of Illinois Library in its *Annual Report, 1945-46*. Drawing speakers largely from the university faculty, the year's program covered such topics as labor policy, folk music, radar, income taxes, plastics, housing, the atomic bomb, children's literature, best sellers, and current events. Books were frequently exhibited and lists of works recommended by speakers were distributed at the meetings.

Similar in plan, according to the library's annual report was "The Library Presents," a weekly radio program over station WILL, sponsored jointly by the University of Illinois Library and Library School. The year's schedule included some talks repeated from "The Library Hour," and others treating such subjects as inflation, veterans, maps, geopolitics, higher education, cultural relations abroad, and topics related to books and libraries. Suggestions for reading were usually connected with each talk.

What Cities Spend for Libraries

A total of \$30,226,000 was reported spent for public library service in 1944 by cities in the United States having a population of 25,000 or over, according to a tabulation of general municipal operating expenditures prepared by the Bureau of the Census and included in the "Statistical Compendium" (Volume 3) of its series, *City Finances: 1944*.

The Bureau states that the above figure covers operating expenditures for municipal library service reported by 305 out of 395 cities over 25,000 in population, and includes also contributions

by the city to privately maintained libraries open for public use.

Books on Wheels

A gift of \$5,000 for the purchase of a bookmobile has been received by the Fort Worth Public Library from one of its trustees, according to a recent announcement in *Texas Libraries*, official publication of the Texas State Library. The donation was made in memory of the trustee's mother, a former member of long standing on the library's board of trustees.

The new bookmobile will represent the first step in an expansion of Fort Worth Public Library to provide more adequate library service to a growing city. This bookmobile, reports the Texas State Library, will be the sixteenth in operation in Texas.

Toward World Peace

Librarians and teachers who wish to keep abreast of American foreign relations will find in *The Department of State Bulletin* an authoritative week-by-week analysis prepared by Federal officials.

The bulletin not only contains exclusive articles on America's role in world affairs, but also includes authoritative versions of historic documents which underlie the future world of peace. The Department of State announces that this weekly publication provides simple, compact, and straightforward information upon which Americans may base well-informed viewpoints on the foreign policy of the United States.

The Department of State Bulletin is announced as available by subscription from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at a price of \$1.00 for 13 weeks, or \$3.50 for 1 year, with a 25 percent discount for 100 or more subscriptions.

The Southeastern Library Association celebrated its 25th Anniversary at the twelfth biennial conference held in Asheville, N. C., October 23-26. There was a record attendance of more than 500 librarians and trustees from the following 9 States that make up the membership of the Association: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Missis-

issippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

Throughout the meeting the results of 25 years of regional planning were stressed but the primary emphasis was on the need for continued cooperation. Tommie Dora Barker reported on "Libraries in the Southeastern States, 1942-46." Jack Dalton of the University of Virginia spoke for Louis R. Wilson on "The Southeastern States' Cooperative Survey of Libraries." (In this statistical study it is planned to collect fundamental facts about libraries as they now exist.) Paul Howard spoke of the work that he is carrying on in Washington, D. C. at the National Relations Office of the A. L. A. and of the importance of securing funds to provide for the demonstration of public library service in areas without such service or with inadequate library facilities. His general subject was "Libraries Must Learn To Live Together."

Mary U. Rothrock, President of the American Library Association, addressed the group. She said that within the decade the Southeastern Library Association has made tremendous strides toward spreading a framework of libraries over the major areas of every southern State. At present more than half of the total population in the area is within reach of libraries. Miss Rothrock was concerned about the effectiveness of expanding library facilities in relation to the improvement of living in the South. She emphasized the fact that southern libraries must give increased emphasis to the social aspects as well as to the literary needs of their communities. The needs of the South, she said, "are pronounced and definite, but they admit an educational solution." The speaker continued by declaring that it is the responsibility of libraries to help in the educational solution of the problems that arise from the South's raw material economy.

There were opportunities to talk about children's books. Nora E. Beust of the U. S. Office of Education conducted three discussion groups. Helen Ferris of the Junior Literary Guild introduced the discussion of "All Good Books for Boys and Girls Have Social Significance." Glenn O. Blough, of the U. S. Office of Education, spoke on writing for children.

The importance of adult books was

the subject of the talk by William T. Polk, associate editor of the *Greensboro Daily News* at a meeting of library trustees. He spoke of the need for maintaining a high standard of reading to promote spiritual and intellectual forces. A book dinner with Christine N. Govan, author of the best seller—*Jennifer's House*—as guest speaker gave the group a glimpse of what "My Life in An Ivory Tower" is for a busy mother.

Section meetings concerned with the improvement of different types of library services were held throughout the conference. The book displays by the numerous exhibitors were effective and conveniently located.

County Library Growth

Your County Library is the title of an illustrated brochure issued by the Burlington County, N. J., Free Library Commission in commemoration of the 25th anniversary of the county free library system with headquarters at Mount Holly, N. J.

Reproductions of photographs, line drawings, and a map accompany brief summaries of the growth and extent of specific county library services to schools, local library associations, and individuals through library stations, a bookmobile, book post, interlibrary loans, reference and readers' advisory activities. The pamphlet concludes with a statement of the budget required to maintain the Burlington County Library.

Concerning Teacher Strikes

THE ETHICS Committee of the National Education Association recently issued the following statement concerning teacher strikes:

"The N. E. A. Ethics Committee recommends a cost of living adjustment in teachers' salaries. It reaffirms its position regarding the sanctity of teachers' contracts. The Ethics Committee does not endorse breaking contracts by striking. However, the Ethics Committee warns that immediate consideration must be given to upward salary adjustments in countless communities in order to avert a wholesale withdrawal of trained teachers from the profession.

"The N. E. A. Code of Ethics for

Teachers provides that 'a contract once signed should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent' (Article III, Section A), but it also provides that 'teachers should insist upon a salary schedule commensurate with the social demands made upon it' (Article III, Section 5).

"With several hundred teachers on strike at the present and several thousand pupils out of classrooms because of strikes in school systems over the Nation, the Ethics Committee expresses deep concern over the outlook for education, as living costs skyrocket and as the antiquated school tax structures collapse."

The committee, headed by Dr. Virgil M. Rogers, superintendent of schools, Battle Creek, Mich., urges administrators and local and State leaders to bring to the attention of their communities, school boards, and legislatures the gravity of the situation and the distressing implications for American democracy.

NEGRO HISTORY WEEK

"DEMOCRACY Possible Only Through Brotherhood" is the theme of the *Negro History Week* program for February 9 to 15, 1947.

Sponsored by the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, the program is designed to improve inter-group relations by increasing knowledge and appreciation of the participation of Negroes in American life and culture. An understanding of the relation of racial democracy to world peace is stressed as essential to constructive living in this period of history.

Special posters, monographs, reports, books and other assistance may be secured from Dr. Carter G. Woodson, 1538 Ninth Street, N. W., Washington 1, D. C.

The Association publishes *The Negro History Bulletin* designed for upper elementary and high school students, and *The Journal of Negro History* in which carefully documented research is presented. Books about Negroes published by the Association and by other publishers are available from their office.

U. S. GOVERNMENT ANNOUNCES

New U. S. Office of Education Publications

Educational Associations and Directories. By Luanna J. Bowles. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 52 p. (Part IV, Educational Directory, 1945-1946.) 15 cents.

A directory of national and sectional associations, State educational associations, educational foundations and boards, religious educational organizations, State congresses of parents and teachers, State library associations, international educational associations and foundations, and educational and social directories and year-books.

Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Year Ended June 30, 1944. By Lloyd E. Blanch and Francis G. Cornell. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 45 p. (Bulletin 1946, No. 16.) 10 cents.

Data presented in this bulletin ordinarily appear as a part of the chapter on "Higher Education" of the *Biennial Survey of Education*.

New Publications of Other Agencies

FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY

Children and the 1946 Session of Congress. By Edith Rockwood, Children's Bureau.

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. (In *The Child*, vol. 11, No. 3, September 1946, p. 57-59, published by the Division of Reports, Children's Bureau.) Subscription, \$1 per year; single copies, 10 cents.

A summary of the legislation passed by the 79th Congress to benefit children.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

City Finances: 1944 [Cities Having Populations Over 25,000], Volume 3, Statistical Compendium, prepared under the supervision of Calvert L. Dedrick, Bureau of the Census. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 255 p. 70 cents.

In a number of the tables, "schools" and "libraries" head separate columns.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

Department of State Publications: a Semi-Annual List Cumulative From October 1, 1929.

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 36 p. (Publication 2609.) Free from the Division of Research and Publications.

Lists the series subdivided according to general subject.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

Missouri Valley Authority: Background and Analysis of Proposal (S555, 79th Congress), prepared by C. Frank Keyser, Legislative Reference Service.

Washington, Library of Congress, 1946. 131 p. Processed. Public Affairs Bulletin No. 42. Free, but distributed only to libraries.

Summarizes the pros and cons of a Missouri Valley Authority, with attention paid to the conditions in the area which call for some solution, the plans proposed, and the TVA as a precedent.

NATIONAL ARCHIVES

Your Government Records in the National Archives.

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 81 p. (Publication 46-18) Free from the National Archives as long as the supply lasts.

A simplified over-all view of the usefulness of the 700,000 cubic feet of Federal documents stored in the National Archives.

OFFICE OF WAR MOBILIZATION AND RECONVERSION

The Second Year of Peace: Eighth Report to the President, the Senate, and the House of Representatives by the Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion, October 1, 1946.

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 76 p. Free from the

Bureau of Special Services, Bureau of the Budget, 1400 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW., Washington 25, D. C.

Covers the production situation as of October 1, 1946, and discusses food, clothing, housing, and employment problems. Contains numerous charts.

Occupation—Why? What? Where?

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 4 p. (Building the Peace, Foreign Affairs Outlines No. 10.) Free from the Division of Research and Publications.

Brief account of the methods and problems of occupation in both the occupied and liberated countries.

Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan, Submitted to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Forces, Tokyo, March 30, 1946.

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 62 p. (Publication 2579, Far Eastern Series 11.) 20 cents.

Report covers the aims and content of Japanese education, language reform, teaching and the education of teachers, and the administration of education at the elementary, the secondary, and the higher levels.

Trial of the Japanese War Criminals.

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 104 p. (Publication 2613, Far Eastern Series 12.) 20 cents.

Contains the opening statement of the chief of counsel, the charter of the International Military Tribunal for the Far East, and the indictment.

What Are We Doing in Japan—and Why.

Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 4 p. (Building the Peace, Foreign Affairs Outlines No. 12.) Free from the Division of Research and Publications.

Brief account of the objectives of occupation, the policy of action in Japan, and the problems ahead.

Orders for the publications listed on this page should be addressed as follows: Requests for cost publications should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., enclosing remittance (check or money order) at the time of ordering. Free publications should be ordered directly from the agency issuing them.